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ABSTRACT

The research on which this study is based found that 50% of the errors in English of French-speaking students were due to interlingual causes and 50% had their source within the target language itself. The question of a correlation between the errors and the teaching method used is explored. Five methods are discussed and evaluated: grammar-translation, direct, audiolingual, transformational grammar, and cognitive code. In each case, a correlation is made of the method with varieties and frequency of errors, and the value of elements of the method is noted. Other pedagogical implications are drawn from the study of the frequency of errors for fifteen types of errors, chosen as representatives of important classes of grammar or as general trouble makers. Rank-ordered lists are provided as well as tables and graphs illustrating the relative frequency of the errors. Some of the conclusions are that negative transfer is an important source of errors and that, with regard to intralingual errors, overgeneralization seems to be the most common cause. To reduce errors of all types and promote communication and fluency, an eclectic method is suggested. It is also noted that some errors persist on all levels even after many years of study. (AMH)

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Louise Godin

A Practical Application of a Study of Errors of College Francophone Students Learning English

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Researchers are somewhat like prospectors. They have initially a definite goal in mind, but very often along the way they fall upon findings that are potentially more important and that require to be exploited to greater extent. Such was the case of this researcher. Equipped with a corpus of 5000 odd errors made by her Francophone college students of all levels during a whole year, her aim was to determine what proportion of these errors were due to interference from the mother tongue and to the second language respectively.

As she proceeded, however, new avenues of exploration opened up. These she engaged in to no great depth till she came upon what she considers the major breakthrough of her research: the rank-ordering of the errors she had collected. The minor avenues of the exploration will be outlined first and then the rank-ordering of the errors will be dwelt upon more at length.

Although the bypaths were explored cursorily for the most part, a few may involve useful implications for second language (henceforth L_2) teaching. This science is so important and so demanding that no stone should be left unturned to favour its mastery. Some of these aspects of L_2 teaching that will be considered are the following: the proportion of errors made by Francophones learning English due to interference from the mother tongue (henceforth L_1) - interlingual errors - and that traceable to the L_2 itself - intralingual errors -; the correlations between the method used by this researcher to teach her college Francophone students and the errors made in the corpus she compiled; the study of different methods suggested for L_2 teaching, in the hope of finding the most adequate, and finally the total number of errors - interlingual and intralingual - for fifteen types of errors found in the corpus.

According to the findings regarding the proportion of errors due to L_1 and L_2 respectively, interference would share about equally the responsibility with non interference. By non-interference errors - it would be good to specify - we understand intralingual errors, that is interference from the second language itself, those errors which reflect the general characteristics of rule learning. The figures are 2,122 errors from interlingual sources, and 2,385 from intralingual. The procedure for the calculations was as follows. The total number of errors was 5,331 of which 3,209 were classified as non-interference. From these, 824 were subtracted as being either of phonological, ambiguous or unknown sources and therefore not clearly due to the L_2. All of which gives as final result the figures mentioned above.

These results differ from Sheen's (1976:302) who finds that interference is responsible for two-thirds of the errors made by the university students he tested. Our results differ also from those reported by Burt (1974:2) who notes that although interference errors are the major cause in phonological errors, it is only one of the types of errors found in syntax, morphology and lexis, (Richards, 1971, Politzer, 1974, Ervintripp, 1970, George, 1972, Olsson, 1972, Duskova, 1969, and Grauberg, 1971). Grauberg (1971) in analysis of 193 German foreign language errors found that the mother tongue interference could account for only 25% of the lexical errors, 10% of the syntactic errors and none of the morphological errors in his students' essays.

The discrepancy in these percentages stems mostly from the fact that researchers cannot agree on whether to classify certain errors as interlingual or intralingual. Stephen Krashen speaking at the 1978 SPEAQ convention stated that while doing error analysis with another researcher, they would get into interminable arguments and could seldom come to a consensus. It is in fact the case of: *Tot capita quot sensus*. As far as our results are concerned - it would not be amiss to conclude that interference from the mother tongue is an important source of errors and that it justifies the use of contrastive analysis to predict potential areas of difficulty.

Sources of Intralingual Errors

As for the intralingual errors which are responsible for the other 50% of the errors made by the students of this research, they may be ascribed to certain causes: faulty generalization, hypercorrection, transfer of training, errors due to ambiguous sources either interlingual, intralingual or phonological and errors due to simple mistakes traceable to none of these causes other than simple confusion or guesswork. The following table contains the number for each one of these causes:

Overgeneralization	1,850
Hypercorrection	296
Transfer of Training	239
Ambiguous sources	369
Phonological	215
Unknown	240

As may be seen from these figures, by far the most important source of intralingual errors stems from overgeneralization. As the English system is not always consistent and as learners have a natural tendency to overgeneralize in all learning processes, errors accumulate. As for the other sources of errors: hypercorrection, transfer of training, ambiguous, phonological or unknown, they share an equally low total. Perhaps more errors should appear under "unknown sources". Again we must underline the speculative nature of these sources and note that other researchers may have different opinions on these sources.

Correlations between the Method Used and the Errors in the Corpus

The question is now whether there could be a correlation between the errors - either interlingual or intralingual with its ubiquitous overgeneralization - and the method used to teach the students who made these errors. The method will therefore be described and then analyzed to discover possible error-provoking causes; however, we shall limit ourselves to the method for the low-level group (101-201). It is, in fact, more representative of the general second language learning level, has made more numerous errors and is more homogeneous not having been influenced by so many outside factors. It is, as it were, a *tabula rasa* - if such there breathes in French Canada - upon which we could base our study.

The central pivot of our teaching for this 101-201 level is an audio-visual (AV) method called *Passport to English* (*Bougere Capelle and Girard: 1962*) to which are added a number of other techniques. The general approach to this AV method is the same as that taught in *Voix et Images de France* adapted to the teaching of English, with an important variant however: instead of having the students understand the meaning of the picture only by the frame itself, the teacher makes a series of mimes and actions before introducing the lesson - before showing the pictures - so that the students can grasp the meaning more readily when the picture is shown to them. For example, to illustrate the difference between the present continuous and the simple present tense, as brought out in Lesson 7 of *Passport*, the author shows line drawings of persons practising different sports: *She is playing tennis; He is playing football (or is it soccer?); They are hiking*, and then she gives oral examples of the simple present tense: *I play tennis too, but I only play in summer. I'm not playing tennis now, I'm teaching; He goes swimming at the PEPS every week*, and then pointing an accusing finger at a (good) student: *Are you listening now?* and asking another student about his companion: *Does he generally listen in class?* At this point, of course, she does not go into finer distinctions between the use of the simple present tense to indicate a 'synoptic' view: I place a bell jar over the candle, and after a few moments the water gradually rises, and the continuous tense to indicate that an activity is in progress: I'm placing a bell jar ... the water is rising. (Graver 1971:43)

The next step in the method is fixation: the teacher shows the pictures of the lesson, one at a time, has the tape corresponding to the frame repeated three times or less as necessary and then has the students repeat the dialogues.

Incorporation is the last and most important step. The students are asked to use the same structures as in the lesson but in different situations. They generally work in two's so that everybody is kept busy. The teacher goes around and listens to them. An example of this step is practice on the difficult structure after verbs of volition: *What do you want me to do? I want you to come and play tennis with me. What do you want him to do? I want him to stop teasing me.*

The final part of incorporation is role-playing. The students imagine some kind of situation with the structures learned in the lesson and each has a role to play. For example, some students have composed ingenious sketches based on Lesson 10 "A Day Out" in which they go out on a skiing excursion. Instead of having: "Is the picnic basket in the car?" as in the lesson, they thought up: *Are (very often is, unfortunately) the skis on the car?;* instead of keeping the dog from coming along, they turn to the kid sister and say: *Not you, Barbara, you're too young*. Other sketches are given to do, on going to the restaurant, on going to the doctor's or the hospital, but the lexis is given before, so as to add to their store of vocabulary: the names of different kinds of soup, of meats, of fish, of vegetables, the names of the different organs of the body, of different symptoms: dizziness, headache, pain in the back, of illnesses: the flu, pneumonia, thrombosis. These correspond to real communication situations and can be of use to them when they leave the province.

The aim of this AV method is to enable the students to learn the basic structures and to communicate in English. The primary aim of the course, however, is to have the students understand written English because 95% of them will be going on to university where most of the textbooks and reference books are in English. If they cannot read English, they are in a plight, indeed. To have them practise reading on different subjects, the teacher has them take a subscription to "Scope", a magazine published for English students of grades eight to twelve. As the magazine is intended for slow English readers, the articles and features are not too difficult for them to grasp except for a few who are decidedly weak but who generally manage by dint of hard work to understand the gist of the story. To test whether the students understand what they read, the teacher gives them questions to answer on the stories or articles in the magazine, or summaries of the stories to make. These are of course, studded with errors, the most important and not too complex of which she copies and hands out to the students to correct. As the task is arduous, she helps them out by explaining the rules and giving other examples. She then has them correct their own mistakes in their assignments. Linguistic games and songs occasionally supplement and reinforce the different structures learned. There was very little or no translation given the year the data was collected, as already mentioned.

So much for the description of the method used to teach the students. Let us consider now possible correlations between it and the errors found in our corpus. A word of caution is necessary. It is clear that there are many variables concerned in these correlations and therefore, they must be treated as speculative. A decided negative correlation exists between the extent the mother tongue was used in the method and the negative transfer errors as the lessons were presented totally in English, no call on translation was made, the teacher spoke English and insisted that the students do likewise. If such numerous interference errors accumulated in articles, verbs of volition, prepositions (Cf. the rank-ordered lists) and the verb *be* used instead of *have*, the audio-visual method is not responsible for them as it contained sentences that underlined these aspects of the language. Such were (*for prepositions and articles*): "Go *to the* Grocer's and get me these things"; "*At the* Public Library"; "I want to get *to* that village over there".; "I have *a* new dress to show you."; "Would you and Peter like to come *to the* pictures with me?"; "Is *the* picnic basket in the car?"; "I live *on* Hill Street, Number 8."; "I'm *going* home."; "Do you see *the* bird on that tree?"; (for *verbs of volition*): "I want *to* go to that village over there."; "I also want *to* return my mother's book"; "I want you *to* do some shopping for me."; "Do you want me *to* put them on the table?"; (*the verb be used instead of have*): "Peter *was* three years old".; "You *were* two."; "You're too young, *you're* only eighteen."; "Oh! *You're* right, it is heavy." Other examples of high-ranking errors that are practised in the audio-visual method are numerous. Suffice it to end with the highest-ranking error: *the omission of the s-morpheme on the third person singular, present tense*, many examples of which are found in the method: "My brother *wants* to read it."; "I must say the table *looks* nice."; "Mummy *wants* some vegetables."; "Alan *wants* to know what film you'd like to see." etc.

A first positive correlation seems apparent, however, between the repetitive and uniquely oral nature of the audiolingual method and the meaningless or aberrant utterances the students produced. Such are: *"*That my parent bedroom"*, *"Who wants a crackers?"*, *"He is a smallest of the class"*, *"There are six of us"* - (Them are six of them). In the lesson the dialogue was: "There are six of *us* in the family."; *"*What was Judy want to see?"* - (What would Judy like to see?); *"*Peter liked to see"*, - (Peter would like to see), **It's very good, don't you?"* - (isn't it?: adapted from the dialogue: "I like this colour, don't you?") and *"*When the tourists are visiting Quebec, they take many photos."* The list could be extended for pages.

The second positive correlation between the method and the errors of the corpus appears here. As the grammar of the underlying structure is not understood because the structure is acquired - or not acquired as may be seen from the above errors - solely by repetition, faulty generalization and simple parroting ensue.

A third positive correlation conducive to faulty generalizations is lack of use of the cognitive approach when introducing the lessons. Explanations of the rules found in the lessons would have highlighted certain difficult structures and drawn attention to them all along the repetition drills. Had translation been used, the same desired effect of focusing the learning on particular trouble spots would have been obtained by indicating the differences and similarities in their use with the L_1. It is to be noted that we do not think that translation should be used at the moment of introducing the lessons, but later as a control to test if the students understand the meaning of the structures. Certain misinterpretations would thus have been avoided.

Finally a fourth positive correlation, was that at the time the data was collected, the author lost considerable time by insisting on a monolingual course when enlightening explanations could have been given in French for difficult points to grasp. Still labouring from the after-effects of the direct method she had taught when that method was in its heyday, she would try to mime the meaning of structures or words; she would try to find a synonym for a given word, and as this second word was still not clear she would use a third.

If the correlation between the method and the errors is such that the method could have been conducive to the errors found in the corpus, what method would then be - not the ideal method, for none has been found - but what method would have the best chances of succeeding while being more easily adaptable to teachers with very little time to teach all the complexitites of a language needed for communication and research, and adaptable also to young adults who have reached a rather advanced stage of cognitive development. We shall question the methods themselves, some authorities on the subject and draw our own conclusions.

A Study of Different Methods Suggested for L_2 Teachers

The first of the methods to be studied is translation. Translation, as a systematic approach the way it was practised some years ago when the only manipulation of the FL or L_2 was writing versions is, of course, not acceptable. It is not language learning. A good deal of the difficulty of the method seems "to arise from the confusion of linguistic literacy with language aims" (Anthony and Norris: 1972:43). Indeed the student after following the method could read fluently and appreciate the literature of the FL or L_2 but could neither speak or understand the language. The only category of persons for whom it could still be useful then, would be scientists or others whose sole aim in learning L_2 is to understand the literature for their specific purposes.

If translation is not recommendable as a method, it is recommendable as an aid in language teaching, the importance of which has been overlooked for some years because of the taboo placed on it in reaction to its misuse. It is helpful in explaining the difficult structures of the L_2 as it transfers the learner's L_1 competence to L_2. (Quertz 1974: 1124) Some L_2 semantic and selectional restrictions are complex but they can be explicited more easily by comparison with the L_1. Thus, the author finds that the problems of sequence of tenses and of the subjective can be overcome by simple translation from the French. "Why must we put the conditional instead of the future when the verb of the principal clause is past?" the students ask, to which she answers: "For the same reason that in French you have: "Il a dit qu'il *serait* là demain". Likewise the translation of *Si j'avais (and not j'aurais) un congé demain, je serais heureuse,* throws light on the English: If I *had* a holiday...

The other side of the coin, of course, is interference, always a possible danger with translation into L_2, but Juhasz (1969:170) explains that if the relationship between L_1 and L_2 structures is understood, translation aids their retention and use. It even helps to avoid interference because the students are made aware of the possible negative transfer and are armed against it, just as we are more watchful when we are warned of an obstacle or declivity while walking in the dark.

As mentioned above, translation can also aid to control the student's understanding of certain complex structures or idioms. Thus about the only way to see if the students understand the idiom *"What's it like?"* is to have them translate it; for example, *"Il y a un nouvel élève dans la classe." "Quel air a-t-il?"*. This is a particularly convincing example, for before the author used translation to explain the idiom in Lesson 6, *"Passport to English"*, the meaning could never get across for some, because, very likely, of the implication of comparison with *like* and because of the confusion with the verb *like* with which they are familiar. She would multiply examples and try to explain the meaning with different words: "Here we want to get a description of something: *I've a new book. What's it like?* - Well, it's small, thin, green and talks about the lives of great men"; or again: *I've a new dog. What's it like?* - Well, it's a cocker spaniel, just three months old, a nice tan colour". But all in vain: many still remained in the dark.

To summarize our opinion on the subject of translation used as a method, we would not advocate it as a systematic approach to language learning, but we would make use of it occasionally to explain and stress certain more difficult structures and to control the students' understanding.

The Direct Method

No lengthy arguments are required to prove that the direct method as an approach to L_2 teaching is decidedly out. It is indeed, such a time-consuming method that it can no longer be recommended. The author remembers having taken precious moments trying to explain with a rolling ball the difference between *come and go* when it would have been so simple to say that *come is venir, and go, aller*. Other drawbacks are that the direct method makes no "emphasis on the choice of materials" (Anthony and Norris 1972:44) as does the audio-lingual method and that it does not call upon comparisons between L_1 and L_2 to increase relevance and efficiency (Mallinson 1953:17). The mediocre success it has obtained is the final point that disqualifies it as a current method in teaching.

Using the direct method as an approach to L_2 teaching is not recommendable, as we have seen, but as a technique in language teaching however, it can be useful at times. It prevents the teacher from always falling back on the L_1 to convey the meaning of certain easy concepts. If he can get the students to understand rapidly and well without translation, it is all the better, for experience tells us that if a teacher reverts too readily to the mother tongue, the students will do likewise, they who are so prone to do so. The danger always lurking for courses where explanations are given in the L_1 is that they can turn into a monolingual class - the only language used, being the mother tongue.

The Audiolingual Method

Before beginning the study of the audiolingual method, it must be noted that we include under the name all the techniques based on behaviourism and structuralism such as drilling with patt-prac. mim-mem and even the structuro-global method based on audio-visual techniques. Like the direct method, the audiolingual method has been the target of severe criticisms under several counts. Are these criticisms justified? As an aid in language teaching, is audiolingualism worthless? These questions we shall endeavour to answer by consulting the opponents to behaviourism and structuralism as well as the advocates, and our own opinion on the subject.

Chomsky (1965:51-52) states outright that a stock of patterns acquired through practice and used as a basis for analysis is of little value. Olsson (1972:91) maintains that evidence shows that graded pattern drills are not the most effective way of teaching an L_2. Exactly what the evidence is, nor what experiments were made to support the evidence, she fails to note, but Mueller (1958) specifies that students do not perceive grammatical signals even after extensive drills. Echeverria (1974:70) adds that systematic structure teaching imposes formal rather than useful organization of language materials. Mackey (1978:213-214) in his research on the importance of contextualization for language learning, deplores the fact that Bloomfield, having divorced the study of meaning from linguistics, his disciples did likewise with the result that their methods of teaching were limited to repetition of pattern drills. Expressions can take on different meanings in different situations and thus lead to confusion in communication. Jakobovits (1968:101-106) also shows his concern for meaning when he says that teaching knowledge of structure is useless because knowledge of language at all levels consists of knowing patterns of relations rather than constituent elements and that patt-prac drills are no good because the semantic interpretation of a sentence cannot be viewed as a process of sequential analysis of categories of words and because in ordinary speech we use an infinite variety of patterns. Since L_2 learners cannot be drilled on an infinite variety of patterns, they cannot develop automatized speech. The same author in a more serious condemnation of patt-prac states that piecemeal drilling of patterns inhibits the attainment of broad generalizations and encourages the formation of restricted hypotheses which later have to be unlearned after many false starts, for example: *Where does he live?* may interfere with: *Can you tell me where he lives.* Jakobovits (1969:80)

Even the cherished assumptions of behaviourists and structuralists, namely that patt-prac facilitates L_2 learning because it is based on imitation as is L_1 acquisition and because it circumvents L_1 interference as no recourse is made to the L_1, such cherished assumptions, then, have been challenged by the opponents. Jakobovits (1968:100), in fact, maintains that the child does not imitate much - only 10% of the language. The rules that the child discovers by himself are more important than practice. Sami (1972:97) moreover, contends that because patt-prac teaches phonetic shapes without the rules that can relate these phonetic shapes to meaning, the learner will try to relate these phonetic shapes by applying his native rules. This is where interference comes in - either interference from his mother tongue, or interference from the L_2 - as he may also use the previous rules he learned in the L_2. Boileau (1974:494) for his part, examining the structuro-global procedures in order to analyze their linguistic and psychological justification, explains that these make use of a mechanistic approach to teaching, involving listening followed by repetition and finally comprehension. Automatism and reflexes are induced in students without recourse to any analysis or translation. No attention is focused on the differences between the two linguistic codes. This way of proceding he continues, seems to be corroborated by the views of certain American psychologists and neurologists, but in spite of their approval, nothing proves that two separate linguistic codes are produced in the brain. Recent research in bilingualism indicates on the contrary, that interference is inevitable. What is still worse, linguistic training based on the psychology or reflex and conditioning can be psychologically dangerous and is not validly justifiable on the linguistic or neurological level.

There are weighty objections aimed at behaviourism and structuralism by worthy opponents. We shall now consider the point of view of the champions - or at least the defenders on occasion - of audiolingualism.

Against the adversaries who blame audiolingualism for its ineffective drilling, its attention to merely surface relations of constituents, its sequential analysis of categories of words, its piecemeal drilling that inhibits broad generalizations, authors oppose a battery of arguments. Echeverria (1974:74) states that experiments by Palermo and Parrish seem to indicate that the rule is acquired as a function of exemplars but not as a function of the output of the rule. Lenneberg (1967:324) gives further experimental proof of this fact by noting that the true deaf improve in school through examples from which they begin to extract commonalities that help them with their own sentences. Further corroboration of this opinion is offered by Carrol (1970) who believes that acquisition of an L_2 must imply nuclei from which similarity networks can be organized so as to facilitate choices and strategies. Much in the same line of thought, Rivers (1972:53) explains that certain elements of language remain in fixed relationship in small closed systems so that once the system is invoked in a particular way, a succession of interrelated formal features appears. Fluent speakers make these adjustments easily. The elements that interact in restricted systems may be practised separately in order to forge strong habitual associations from which the pupil never deviates. She continues to give examples of these closed systems: gender, inflection of person and number, agreement of gender, forms for questions, for negatives and formal features of tenses. Wolfe (1970:282) in an overt contradiction to Jakobovits' "infinite variety of patterns in ordinary speech" already mentioned, states that the system of patterns of a language is finite and can be learned and the number of sentences that can be uttered is infinite. Rivers (1972:52) quoting Chomsky echoes this opinion when she says that the student cannot create the grammar of the language; he is making "infinite use of finite means".

Another basic tenet of behaviourism and structuralism that has been challenged is the need for automaticity and conditioning in L_2 learning which some authors have defended. Juhasz (1973:68) for one, maintains that the less conscious a psychological activity is, i.e. the more automatic it is, the more it takes roots in the nervous system and the more difficult it becomes to change it by others. This, of course, is said of interference, but it could apply to language patterns which can easily become automatic - and correctly automatic - with practise, so that they too may take roots in the nervous system to promote fluency and correction.

With Smith and Rivers arises the perennial discussion of whether language learning is a skill or an intellectual discipline. Smith (1972: 392) seems to have no doubts on the subject and declares that language is a skill, not an intellectual discipline. The student should therefore practise to the point where his responses are automatic like his L_1. Rivers is more cautious and wonders if language learning is a skill or an intellectual exercise. If it is a skill, "long and intensive practise is needed until the learners are able to associate without hesitation or reflection the linguistic elements interrelated in a linear sequence basic to patt-prac and mim-mem. If it is an intellectual exercise, training is needed anyway to ensure that learners make the correct choice of rules and modifications of rules". (Rivers 1972:53)

Finally a counter-attack by Lado is aimed against the last accusation that audiolingualism promotes interference. The audiolingual method was developed to improve L_2 teaching by systematically making use of techniques for overcoming interference from the L_1 by producing automatic control of the proper patterns in the learner. A dialogue is developed to give the students authentic sentences in L_2 which he can memorize (without the aid of a printed text) to prevent interference from the L_1. These dialogues can be varied and expanded for eventual use in a variety of situations. (1964:192). Brown (1969:200-201) adduces cogent and lengthy reasoning to prove the point that patt-prac is acceptable according to more recent theories than Lado's, and that, in fact, it reduces interference from the L_1. Three separate points must be defended if it is to be demonstrated that the concept of patt-prac is in agreement with current theory and is therefore the logical tool to use in overcoming the practical problems faced by the learner because: 1) Patt-prac helps in overcoming negative transfer from L_1; 2) it helps in automatizing the speech act; 3) it helps in cognitive reorganization. It is obvious, Brown continues, that patt-prac drills concentrate on points of structural difficulty and dissimilarity. They furnish a large number of sentences which illustrate the grammatical structure in rapid oral practice. The more practice the learner gets on a difficult point, the easier it becomes to produce it in an automatic fashion. Thus the case for patt-prac depends on the ability of such materials to permit cognitive reorganization and finally on the compatibility of patt-prac with transformational syntax since it is this conceptualization of language which underlies notions to cognitive learning.

Still according to Brown, if the concept of patt-prac uses a model of grammar containing no recursive devices (that is, containing no embedded sentences or participal phrases) then the only transformations are obligatory ones, such as affix attachment, negative placement and those transformations which require the deep structure be marked for their operation, for example, question, passive, imperative transformations. Nothing forbids the use of patt-prac within such a grammar. These affix attachments can be drilled effectively by substitution drills: *Je suis en ville*) (*Tu* cued by teacher): *Tu es en ville* as well as affirmative sentences changed to negative questions; actives to passives and questions derived from statements. There is nothing in the so-called kernel (Chomsky 1957, Syntactical Structures) which rules out pattern drills. The inclusion of recursive devices themselves cause no difficulty with the concept of patt-prac since sentence pairs may be combined into one sentence to practise embedded sentences. Brown concludes his lengthy reasoning by stating that nothing about transformational grammar is incompatible with patt-prac. This is not surprising for patt-prac are composed of surface structures which present the only data about language that can be proposed directly to the learner for the induction of underlying syntactic relationships.

It is evident that patt-prac is not based on any solid language learning theory, but as we do not really know yet how a second language is acquired, that conditioning appears to be part of the learning process and that no better simple productive method has been discovered, it seems that at present, patt-prac could still be advocated.

After studying the divergent opinions on the drawbacks and merits of behaviourist and structuralist approach to L_2 learning, we shall give our personal opinion on the subject.

We admit that the audiolingual method is not always effective and that despite repeated drillings the students make the same errors. The number of errors in our non-interference and interference sections is too considerable to support contradiction. Thus are, for example, **he go, he think, the table who is here, we can to come, if she would like*. We equally admit that audiolingualism grants great importance to the surface relations of the constituents of a sentence and that it sometimes has no semantic background. Again, the inane repetitions mentioned at the beginning of this chapter are ample proof that the students did not grasp the meaning. The method, can also be open to criticism on the score that it may prompt the learners to revert to their L_1 because it teaches phonetic shapes without the rules that can relate these phonetic shapes to meaning.

All this is true of behaviourism and structuralism as it was practised when the theories were first expounded. Mechanical overdrilling and absence of rules and explanations were better suited to the training of an animal (Van Parreren 1976:141). But for all these failings, the whole method should not be rejected. A method is like Aesop's considerations on the human tongue: it can be the best or the worst of created objects. A method must be experimented with for some time, thought over, modified, supplemented and adapted to the latest linguistic findings.

In the case of audiolingualism, the objections mentioned above must be re-considered in the light of modifications that could be made to the practice suggested by new theory and by new techniques, as well as by consideration of the problems from different angles. It is true that a series of units assembled sequentially are given great importance in the method, but we must recognize that language is made up of different combinations of words which do not vary so much (Jakobovits' finite system of patterns which generate an infinite number of utterances). In fact, we always have the same patterns for questions, negations, imperatives, tenses and modals. If many of these exemplars are presented to the learners, a whole synthesis of the language will be obtained. If again, these examples are practised until automaticity is attained, facility in using them will result. So it is in domains other than language learning which we shall take as comparisons, given that learning processes are analogous. A machinist may well know the functioning of a car - the meshing of the gears, the action of the brakes to stop the movement of the wheels, the reaction of the spark plugs on the fuel - but he must practise repeatedly the actual driving of a car before he becomes proficient in the handling of a car. So it is also with a surgeon or a neurologist who may well know how the epidermis and dermis are irrigated by blood vessels, how the nerves branch out from the spine and different plexuses, where and how the organs are situated, yet he must practise long hours with his scalpel or with a hypodermic needle to know to what depths he must cut to perform the oblation of an organ or in what nerve to inject his needle to infiltrate the pain-relieving chemical. We understand, however, that the opposite does not hold true in both domains. A person may be able to drive a car expertly and yet not have an inkling as to how the underlying mechanism works, but a person may speak a language fluently and yet have - at least subconsciously - a notion of how the language system functions.

No erudite considerations on the structure of language can promote fluency unless accompanied by practice. These patterns can then be integrated into longer dialogues, narrations, expository genres in a well defined context, the oral expression of which will become quite fluent, and the written expression, correct. This is how the "piecemeal drilling" of patterns criticized by Jakobovits can broaden out into generalizations, how vaster hypotheses can be formulated and how danger of using patterns out of context, as pointed out by Mackey (1978:206) may be averted.

Jakobovits' objection that drilling patterns can later induce errors within these patterns, such as *Where does he live* interfering with *Tell me where he lives* is certainly well - founded as exemplified by the errors of our corpus. However, Jakobovits himself admits that everything cannot be taught at once, (1969:80). According to the principles of selection, (Mackey 1965:164-165) we must first consider the simplicity and the restrictability of the structure to be taught. The more useful it is the lower is its restrictability. Mackey gives the phoneme as example whose restrictability is low because the language cannot do without it. Once these simple and useful forms are internalized, the more complex and less indispensable structures may be explained to the students with a note of warning that they differ from what was taught. These, in turn may be drilled to render them automatic.

Finally, if explanations are given of the patterns before they are drilled to show how they function, and if comparisons with the L_1 are made to indicate the differences and similarities between the two patterns to focus attention on possible trouble spots, the danger of interference mentioned by Sami may be avoided. Our contention is, in fact, that one of the most important contributions of the audiolingual method is that it eliminates negative transfer from the L_1 as much as it is possible in normal teaching conditions. Indeed, how can generally good and attentive students - there is always room for exceptions - continue saying: **I want that you come immediately* when they have practised the different sentences they composed themselves: *I want you to play tennis with me, He wants her to phone him, We want them to attend the meeting*. It is our personal feeling that if we had insisted more on the drilling of this structure, we would not find the 105 errors we have in our corpus with verbs of volition.

As may be inferred from the above comments, we consider, like Rivers (1972:53) that language operates on two levels: "the level of manipulation of language elements in relationships that vary within narrow limits, and the level of expression of personal meaning for which the possibility is limitless. A place must be found for both habit formation and understanding of a complex system with its infinite possibilities of expression".

By this we mean that the student must first understand how the pattern functions, since it is this conceptualization of language which favours language learning and he must then practise it intensely. To revert to our car analogy again, the uninitiated driver of a manually operated car must first understand how the gears function along with the clutch and he must practise afterwards. If he first began to drive without knowing where and when to shift the gears, he, his car, and his victims as well would be in a pitiful condition. After the learner has mastered different structures, he may use them to express an infinite variety of ideas since he is familiar with the structures that are the essential backbone of the sentence, provided, of course, he knows the necessary vocabulary. Thus it is that we believe with Noblitt (1972:325) that cognitive theory and behaviourism are not mutually exclusive.

The mechanisms of language acquisition are poorly understood but as long as the student progresses from controlled production to spontaneous production, there is no reason to question the value of the learning paradigm as its relative efficiency has been established well enough.

As we have seen, the challenges to behaviourism are numerous and serious, but as Noblitt (1972:325) again adds wisely, the debate has yet to produce a serious alternative to the behavioural component. To sum up and conclude, we rally ourselves to Paulston's (1973:129) and Goethal's (1977:4) opinions that as a theory, the assumptions of behaviourism and structuralism are superannuated, since psycholinguistics has proved that language acquisition is not a question of habit formation, but of rule-governed behaviour, the templates of which are inscribed in our genes. Habit formation theories and innate learning, however, are not mutually exclusive but complementary (Carrol 1971:101-114). We endorse the theoretical assumptions of the sponsors of the cognitive code and transformational grammar, but we prefer the techniques suggested by the structural approach in language teaching. Traditionalists say that proven method is better than one that has still to prove its worth in a classroom (Smith 1972:390).

The Transformational Grammar Method

Chomsky's *Syntactic Structures*, published in 1957 and his *Aspects of the Theory of Syntax*, in 1965, provoked a major breakthrough in the theory of language learning with their concepts of generative grammar and innateness. A generative grammar comprises a system of rules that in some explicit and well-defined way assigns structural description to sentences. Thus by means of transformations, a basic sentence can be expanded or changed to express any possible meaning, and this in any language (Larudee 1971:1616). What is more, every child "has an innate theory of potential structural descriptions that is sufficiently rich and fully developed so he is able to determine from a real situation in which a signal occurs which structural description may be appropriate to this signal" (Chomsky 1965:32).

The theory does not apply only to child acquisition of language, but to foreign and L_2 learning as well. The structure of the new language can be illustrated by a basic or deep structure sentence and then transformed into other types of sentences. The learners can thus be made to understand how the language functions and then they can create their own utterances. They will thus internalize the grammar of the language which is the essence of language learning.

As we may infer, the stress is on creativity - not on repetition as in the audiolingual method. Kandiah (1970:180) notes with satisfaction that this creative aspect of language makes language teaching more humane. The student is no longer a sophisticated parrot or worse, a tape recorder.

Roulet (1977:415) however does not echo Kandiah's enthusiasm when he warns that Chomsky's grammar has nothing to do with language teaching. Without going so far as this devastating statement, for advances in theory give new insights into language teaching, we share some of the following linguists' concern about the applicability of transformational grammar (henceforth TG). The first of these concerns centres around the fact that Chomsky is more interested in competence than in performance (Roulet 1977:417). Rivers (1972:50) explains that Chomsky aims at discovering and exhibiting the mechanisms making it possible for a speaker to understand an arbitrary sentence on a given occasion. A TG is therefore an account of competence in terms of an abstract model not attempting to parallel the psychological processes of language use. It really does not show how the student may be taught to communicate in a foreign language. Burke (1974:64) adds that TG is not more than marginally concerned with the additional concepts which make up performance; Echeverria (1974:72) that these models of linguistic competence make no prediction on how competence will be used by the speaker-hearer. Mackey (1978: 214-215) in the same line of thought, states that the innate ideas of transformationalists cannot account for language as a means of communication and that their way of explaining how deep structures can generate specific sentences is doomed to an impasse because they try to explain meaning by ignoring context.

A still more serious objection is levelled at TG as it attacks its basic tenet of deep and surface structures. It is the deep structure which by different transformations - permutations, additions or deletions - finally produces the surface structure with its complexities to express all the aspects of language. Now the deep structure is never directly available (Hayes 1974:398) and according to Wardhaugh (1970:10) different authorities mean different things by it, (Chomsky (1968), Fillmore (1968), and McCawley (1968). It is not surprising, then, that Dirk Geens (1973:39) concludes that any attempts to train foreign language students in producing surface structures from the deep abstract structure must be a failure.

We endorse these objections and add two others. The first is the weakness of the semantic component of the method. It is all very well to know how a language system functions, but how can a language teacher get the meaning of these structures across with only additions and deletions to an original basic sentence? The direct method with its gestures and mimes and the translation method are much better in that respect.

The second objection is the inaneness and complexity of certain transformation exercises. Thus, in one exercise, Jakobovits (1968:107) directs to change the following using sex transformations: boy, father, *moon, sun (Moon, sun:* sex transformations in English! It is enough to get our Francophone students confused for the rest of their lives). In another transformation exercise he suggests to change: *I cannot pay my rent because I am broke* to *If I were not broke, I could pay my rent.* (1968:106) Jakobovits is doubtless a great psycholinguist, but we can wonder how much experience he has had in actual teaching with non-advanced students. We would like to see him at work with lower college levels to get them to function with such transformation exercises. The first hurdle he would have to overcome would be a semantic one: "What do *broke and rent* mean?" The next would be grammatical: the subjunctive *If I were* which is always puzzling for them: "We say: *I was, you were, he was,* why do you come up with: *If I were broke?*" they ask. Even for *could*, additional explanation must be given as in the lower college levels of English, the modal *could* used for the past as well as the conditional is a source of confusion. Krohn (1970:107) notes in connection with these transformational exercises in which items are transformed by deletions or additions or in which two sentences are combined to make one sentence, that these were done long before TG - and we would add - more simply and productively, with patt-prac and the like.

These objections do not imply that we reject TG. Along with the authors mentioned at the beginning of this study of TG, we feel that it can give new impetus to the science of linguistics, and that the search for linguistic universals implied in the theory can lead to exciting possibilities, that of cognitive universals, of which language and its acquisition is only a particular manifestation as Burke (1974:66) suggests. In the classroom we can use a basic sentence and by simple transformations change it into another type of sentence and have the students create their own sentences so as to have them internalize the rules. But beyond this we would not go; we would not go into complex transformations of a basic sentence and much less into complex transformational exercises. As yet none have been composed that are simple enough to be practical. "The best justification for a classroom activity is its workability" (1970:107).

The Cognitive Code Method

With the fifth method, the cognitive code learning, the teacher presents the students with well-thought out data in terms of sentences, dialogues and scenes. In the initial step the audiolingual method is still followed, but the teacher increasingly has the students make explicit the rules that they think are functioning in the production of the patterns they see. In the ultimate step the students give the rule. Literature talks very little of the cognitive code learning, however, and it is difficult to get a concensus. Of late, a co-co battle has been engaged, that is, a battle between those who support the cognitive code and those whose sole aspiration is to have the students communicate in the second language, be it a very incorrect second language. Should we not insist more on situational practice, language use in context, than on cognition, that is, a deductive teaching of grammar rules with mediators to internalize them? (Goethals 1977:4) This is the crux of the discussion. Another attack comes from an expert in applied linguistics,Christina Bratt Paulston, (1973:129) who maintains that she cannot accept the teachings of cognitive code learning many of which strike her as utter nonsense.

Compared to the attacks against audiolingualism and TG, however, these criticisms against the cognitive code are mild, and the commendations, numerous and convincing. Smith (1970:391) alluding to the behaviourist method reports that students fail to apply the rules even after extensive drilling, but if the functioning of the language is understood, a speeding up of the learning process will ensue. Carrol (1964:83) also adds that verbal explanation of the materials to be practised can be a valuable aid in the learning process. Chastain (1970:226-227) explains that cognitive learning rests upon neuropsychological bases which is not the case for rote learning. That is why rote-learning is forgotten so easily. Menyuk (1969:157) in her analysis of child's acquisition of language notes that children do not produce what they do not understand. A *fortiori* for adults whose cognitive development is much more advanced.

Enlightening experiments were made to test the efficacy of explaining rules which is part and parcel of the cognitive code method. Politzer (1975:4) concluded from his study that it was better to introduce explanations at the beginning than to postpone them. Von Elek and Oskarsson (1972:65-66) experimented with two groups taught respectively with pattern drills and with cognitive code techniques. More specifically, in one group - called the IM group - dialogues containing new patterns were repeated several times. Grammar was taught by pattern drills. Practise of audiolingual skills was predominant and no translation was given. To avoid mechanical repetitive drills, most drills related to pictures. For the other group - the EX group - the structures in a basic text were carefully explained by comparing and contrasting them with corresponding Swedish structures. The oral and written exercises were mostly the fill-in type or translation. Audiolingual skills were not given priority and pattern drills were avoided. Much of the communication going on in class was in Swedish. All this may sound like the old-fashioned grammar-translation method, but grammar in cognitive lessons is not taught as an end in itself but always followed by exercises containing everyday sentences giving the learners the opportunity of immediate application of the rules.

The results of the experiment are interesting and the implications still more so. The EX group - those who were taught by the cognitive code fared better, irrespective of age. The authors therefore draw the following conclusions. Adults profit more from the cognitive method than by the habit-forming approach in the teaching of grammar. Explanations clarifying language patterns are efficient in internalizing the grammar of a foreign language even when supplied at the expense of practice. Pattern drills, no matter how carefully structured and well prepared, are of limited value as long as insights into the structure of the language is not provided explicitly. The fact that the EX group did better on the oral examination is an indication that the development of aural-oral skills is not entirely dependent on aural-oral practice; perhaps the cognitive command of language is the short-cut to the acquisition of such skills. The authors add that the EX group preferred their method to that of the IM group, which cautionary note does not seem to invalidate the foregoing comments, but further proves that motivation is an important factor of language learning.

More recent research than Elek and Oakarsson's in neurolinguistic analysis of language teaching methods by Walsh and Diller (1978:1-13) indicates that a method based on conscious understanding and grammatical structure and meaningful practice would be superior, because it relies more on Wernick's Area which is involved with all successful methods of foreign language teaching. Wernicke's Area, is, in fact, central both to processing of the sound-meaning relationship and to the transfer of sound to speech. Mim-Mem and Pattern Drill, on the other hand, would be inferior, as it emphasizes the mechanisms of Broca's and related motor areas. It produces high levels of pronunciation in students but pronunciation may be empty. More emphasis should be put on the sound-meaning relationship.

Lamendella (1979:15-18) also shares von Elek and Oskarsson's misgiving about pattern practice as he maintains that it is an unproductive basis for effective and successful L_2 learning. His reasoning, based on the neurofunctional systems and on experiments with aphasics is the following. A flow of information from Wernicke's area, perhaps *via* arcuate fasciculus to Broca's makes it possible to reproduce a copy of perceived phonological image frames and implement a corresponding phonological movement schema thus enabling the human species to repeat quickly and efficiently what is said. Yet, there is more to language learning than simple parroting of what has been uttered as do some aphasics. Always according to Lamendella, there are three levels of language: Level I: accurate auditory perception, and accurate verbal perception; Level II: intact phonological organization, overlearned aspects of grammatical organization which become automatic, and certain overlearned phrases and verbal automatisms; Level III: cognition, intellectual functions and creative aspects of language. The author maintains that pattern practice would dissociate learners from the higher levels of communicative competence and creativity and impede the process of L_2 learning for those lexical and syntactic functions superior to the systems of the speech areas. This would be so because learners with pattern practice depend too heavily on behavioural subroutines as directed in the classroom and they continually require conscious direction. They would thus not accede reliably to communicative success, as would do the cognitive code with its insistence on comprehension first and foremost.

In the co-co battle (cognitive code - communication code) mentioned at the beginning of this section on the cognitive code, we agree with the communication competence people that communication is important in language; it is, in fact its primary objective. We see no cause for warfare therefore, between situational practice and conscious control of phonological, lexical patterns of language largely through study and analysis of these patterns as advocated by the cognitive code. The two should rather be allies because communication requires that coherent patterns be used. In fact, how could communication be established with something like the following pattern - or rather lack of pattern:* *Mr. X were you by yesterday called?* (You were called by Mr. X yesterday).

As for Paulston's objection to the absence of cognitive code texts on the technique level, it is our opinion that once the teacher has grasped the basic principle of cognitive code, namely the explanation of the different patterns of the language by analyzing them, contrasting and comparing them with the corresponding patterns of the mother tongue, there is no call for a textbook. The teacher just has to proceed in his teaching along the lines suggested by Mackey (1965:159-292), that is according to principles of selection, gradation, presentation and repetition.

We generally agree with those authors who advocate cognitive code learning, but we would, however, object to Smith's assertion that once explanations are given, no drilling is necessary. We all have, at one point of our lives learned - or attempted to learn - one or more foreign languages. If we consult our experience, we realize that some form of drilling is necessary - perhaps not endless and meaningless drilling, but some kind of repetition in the form of the use of the difficult structure in different situations as was done by the group mentioned in the experiment above, who were given exercises containing everyday sentences applying the rule that had been explained. By this repetition, difficult structures will become less labourious. No matter how well a football coach explains a certain strategy the team will use for an important match - even with the aid of trigonometry as Rockne, (the famous Notre Dame coach) did - the players must get out on the field and practise before they become proficient. Again, one of our acquaintances told us that he had watched the great pianist, Guesey King, practise a difficult interval during a whole afternoon, going beyond the note at one moment and short of it, at another. That night, at the concert, however, he landed exactly on the correct interval. Man is not all mind and spirit; he must take into account the coordination of the influxes of the brain and the reaction of the different voluntary muscles, be they phonatory or other. This coordination is enhanced by practice and repetition, but practice and repetition of patterns that have been explained and understood according to the dictates of cognitive code method in the domain of language learning.

Conclusion on the Different Methods

While summing up what we have said on the different methods we have examined, we shall reiterate our position. We reject the time-consuming direct method as a whole, but we advocate certain of its techniques of illustrating some aspects of the language to avoid falling back continually on the L_1. We equally condemn the old-fashioned grammar-translation method which consists only in versions and themes to explain certain grammar rules and which leaves no place for communication in L_2, but we recommend using the mother tongue to clarify difficult points, to establish comparisons with the L_1 and thus draw attention on possible pitfalls. These translations also serve as tests to see if the students have understood the meaning of certain more complex structures.

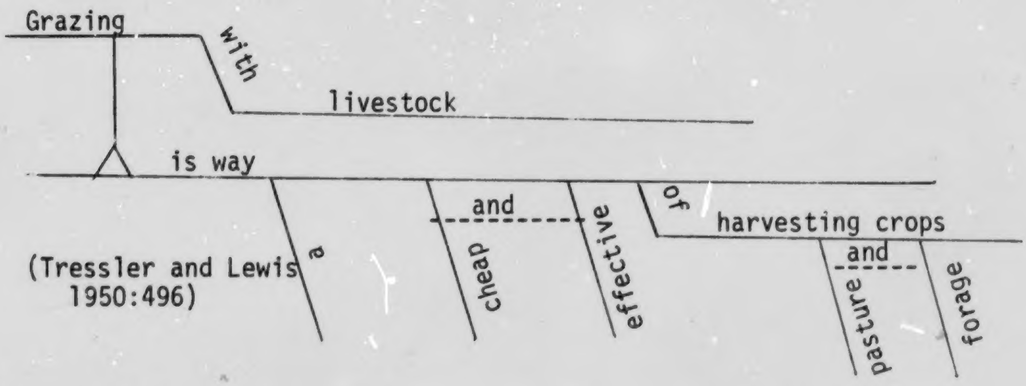
The long, repetitive and meaningless drills of the audiolingual method we would avoid, but we would have the students repeat certain more difficult structures in sentences expressing different situations they have made up themselves to assure their using them with ease and confidence. It is always a source of consolation for this teacher to hear the lower level students who generally speak English haltingly reel off a sketch they composed on the model of two lessons they have repeated but whose situations they have changed:

> "What are you doing this afternoon, Mark?"
> "Nothing Special. I'm going home."
> "If you have time, come with me. I've a new motorbike to show you."
> "A new one! What's it like?"
> "Wait and see. Come with me."
> "Where do you live?"
> "I live on Bougainville Street, number 190."

The dialogue continues with the exhibition and description of the motorcycle. The student then offers his friend to try it who exclaims "What a pity!" (as in Lesson 7).

"What a pity! I don't know how to ride a motorbike."

The theory behind the TG method is enlightening for language teachers and opens vast possibilities. TG itself in its simplest forms can be used to explain the structure of the language to the students, but as a method its applicability remains as yet too complex and dry. We would not like to have to use it extensively in class, as we have reminiscences of the problems that arose with the simple diagram to illustrate grammar structure when we taught English as L_1. It was, indeed a *tour de force* to have them all understand such a relatively simple diagram as:



(Tressler and Lewis 1950:496)

What would it be with the complex TG trees? The editors of the last 1961 edition of *Mastering Effective English* have eliminated the diagrams, doubtlessly because the students found them too difficult.

The cognitive code method, however, seems highly recommendable to us, as we feel strongly that the young adults we have must understand the structures before they can use them. The explanations of the cognitive code also satisfy their needs, as in all other disciplines explanations are given them. In mathematics and science, for example, students were formerly told to apply formulae blindly, but now these are explained to them before having them use them. Nothing seems to frustrate this rational generation than inability to account for certain structures - when we say, for example, in connection with specific idioms, "There is no reason for expressing it this way; it's simply that way and that's all".

As already mentioned, our corpus was gathered during the year 1973-74 before the author applied the cognitive code method. She now gives many more explanations and these before having the students repeat the structures as suggested by Politzer's experiment. (Cf. p. 17) We wonder then, if a greater number of errors of our corpus would have been eliminated had this method been used. Other identical research would be required to find out.

From the comments we have made on the different methods, it may be correctly inferred that we favour an eclectic method for the low levels of English classes. This eclectic method comprises an audio-visual method, as materials presented visually are more easily learned than those presented aurally (Sista, 1974:118) and because patterns are learned in context which favours communication. Stephen Krashen states (SPEAQ: 1979) that to acquire a second language, learners need input which they get by context. That is why he considers that audio-visual aids are important. The dialogues of the audio-visual method which are repeated, but not *ad nauseam*, help the students learn and retain the different structures. These are then used in meaningful situations which the learners make up themselves, for what is meaningful is remembered better.

Before the presentation of the structures of each new lesson, explanations are given, and parallels established with the French to show how it is similar or different. If it is similar, their knowledge of their mother tongue will help them with the structure; if different, trouble is ahead and the learners need to be forewarned. Drilling on the difficult structure is done to facilitate the learning process. Translations from French to English are later suggested to verify if the students understand the dialogues of the audio-visual lessons. So far, as we may see, our eclectic method has combined the audiolingual, cognitive and translation methods. On occasion, as already mentioned, we use the techniques of the direct method to minimize the use of French and we could use simple transformation exercises based on TG as well as elementary diagrams to explain the structure of the language.

For the higher levels we also recommend an eclectic method but leaving aside the audio-visual method which is no longer necessary because the basic structures are already acquired. Repetition, explanation of rules and TG techniques still have their places as well as translation once in a while to prepare those who could eventually go into translation and to give additional insistence on difficult structures.

Enthusiasts of TG maintain that all methodology is under fire. Why teach? - learning can take place more effectively without teaching to hinder it. (1970:45-53) Corder (1967:166) suggests that we should let the learner's innate strategies determine our syllabus - we should adapt to his needs rather than impose our preconceptions on *how* and *what* and *when* he ought to learn. A more serious objection still, is that a good teacher with a poor method may succeed better than a mediocre teacher with a good method. Curran (1973:267-268) gives the example of a teacher who had a tedious method which consisted in having the students listen to very long dialogues and then repeat each sentence after him, and yet, year after year, he reaped superior results in a rather difficult language. Why then, favour a method?

Other authors are less allergic to teaching, it seems, but they entertain certain doubts on any special method. Burke thinks that "as the situation is still fluid, we are left with the possibility that any procedure, natural or contrived, designed to make use of, and develop linguistic ability in adults could have value. (...) The language teacher, then, is still relatively free to evolve a personal synthesis, but this, of course, must be a principled or informed synthesis, one that incorporates knowledge of any new proposals and of the possible loopholes in them" (1974:66). Chastain (1970:230-231) for his part, after first stating that the teachers of the 1950's were psychologically better off than present-day teachers because they had no hesitation or doubts about the method they were to use, concludes that if anything has been learned to date, it is that there is no best way. Students are different and learn differently. Some thrive with the behaviouristic method, and others with the cognitive.

This pluralism in student methods of learning seems indicative of the need of an eclectic method. In a normal classroom condition, indeed, teachers cannot vary the method according to each one of the learners' needs, but with an eclectic method, at one moment, they will suit some types of learners and at another, other types.

Whether the method be eclectic or otherwise, it is our personal opinion that in a normal classroom situation, some kind of method or planned instruction should be adopted. True, the teacher should be free "to evolve a personal synthesis" adapted to his personality and his students' needs, provided it is principled and informed synthesis, as Burke cautions. To from teaching (the TG enthusiasts) and to let the students' innate strategies determine the syllabus (Corder) however, seem tantamount to letting anarchy and loss of time reign supreme. If we refer to our English timetable at college, we have 90 hours of English per year, whereas a child learning his language is exposed to 2,500 hours and in the United States army, 1300 hours were required to learn near-native Vietnamese (Burke '74:64). We must then contrive to find shortcuts and thus have the students learn the most in the limited time they have at their disposal. Mackey (1965:161) says, in fact, that the shorter a course is, the more important it will be to limit the course to essentials and the more difficult it will be to determine what these essentials are. It is our feeling that the teacher is more competent than the students to find these essentials. Allen and Widdowson (1974:15) moreover, maintain that L_2 learners need a form of exercise to achieve a synthesis of the many disparate grammatical and lexical elements of the language. Who can best prepare these exercises? The teacher or the learner? Finally, according to an experiment made with 73 adult students (ages 17 to 55) by Bailey, Madden and Krashen (1974:242-243) adults profit from instruction; they need the feedback provided by the classroom. Other experiments in the same paper indicate that instruction is directly related to English proficiency in adults while exposure to English in an informal environment is not.

As we have seen in this study of the different methods, the theoretical assumptions of some of these are no longer acceptable - such as the direct method and audiolingualism - but help may be gleaned from them for teaching techniques. On the other hand, other methods - the cognitive code and the grammar-translation methods along with TG can furnish useful insights to teaching although TG is of little practicality in teaching. According to our position, therefore, it is up to the teacher to choose the best of each and let the rest fall, just as the busy squirrels in autumn pick out the pithy meats from the nuts and cones and scatter the shells to the winds. The teacher, then, conscious that an L_2 cannot be taught in its entirety but must be drastically simplified (Lee 1977:247) should be able to offer a small but linguistically satisfying diet to his students for speedy and correct acquisition of an L_2 but of an L_2 that is suited to their purposes, for a considerable amount of material suggested by some methods includes much that is never used and soon forgotten (Mackey 1965:161).

The Total Number of Errors for Fifteen Types of Errors

So far in this chapter on the pedagogical implications of our research, much attention has been devoted to the problems of interference and intralingual errors, the sources of these errors, rank-ordered lists and the choice of an optimal method for the teaching of an L_2. Other implications may be drawn however, from the study of the frequency of errors for fifteen types of errors.

These fifteen types of errors were chosen as they either represented important classes of grammar or were generally considered troublemakers by researchers (Olsson: 1972 - Duskova: 1969). The relative frequency of these errors could serve as guide lines for teaching emphasis or textbook designing.

A first list contains the total number of errors in the fifteen types both for interference and intralingual errors with their percentages; a second, the number of interference errors alone with their percentages; and a third, the number of intralingual errors alone with their percentages.

For a more comprehensive view of these types of errors, the lists are followed by tables of graphs illustrating the relative frequency of the errors. Table 1 contains a histogram of the number of errors both for the interference and intralingual errors of the fifteen types; Table 2 is a dual-termed graph of the number of errors for each type of error, thus establishing a comparison between the number of interference and intralingual errors; Table 3 is a pie graph of both interference and intralingual errors; Table 4 contains two pie graphs, one for interference and the other for intralingual errors.

List 1 - Total Number of Errors for Fifteen Types of Interference and Intralingual Errors

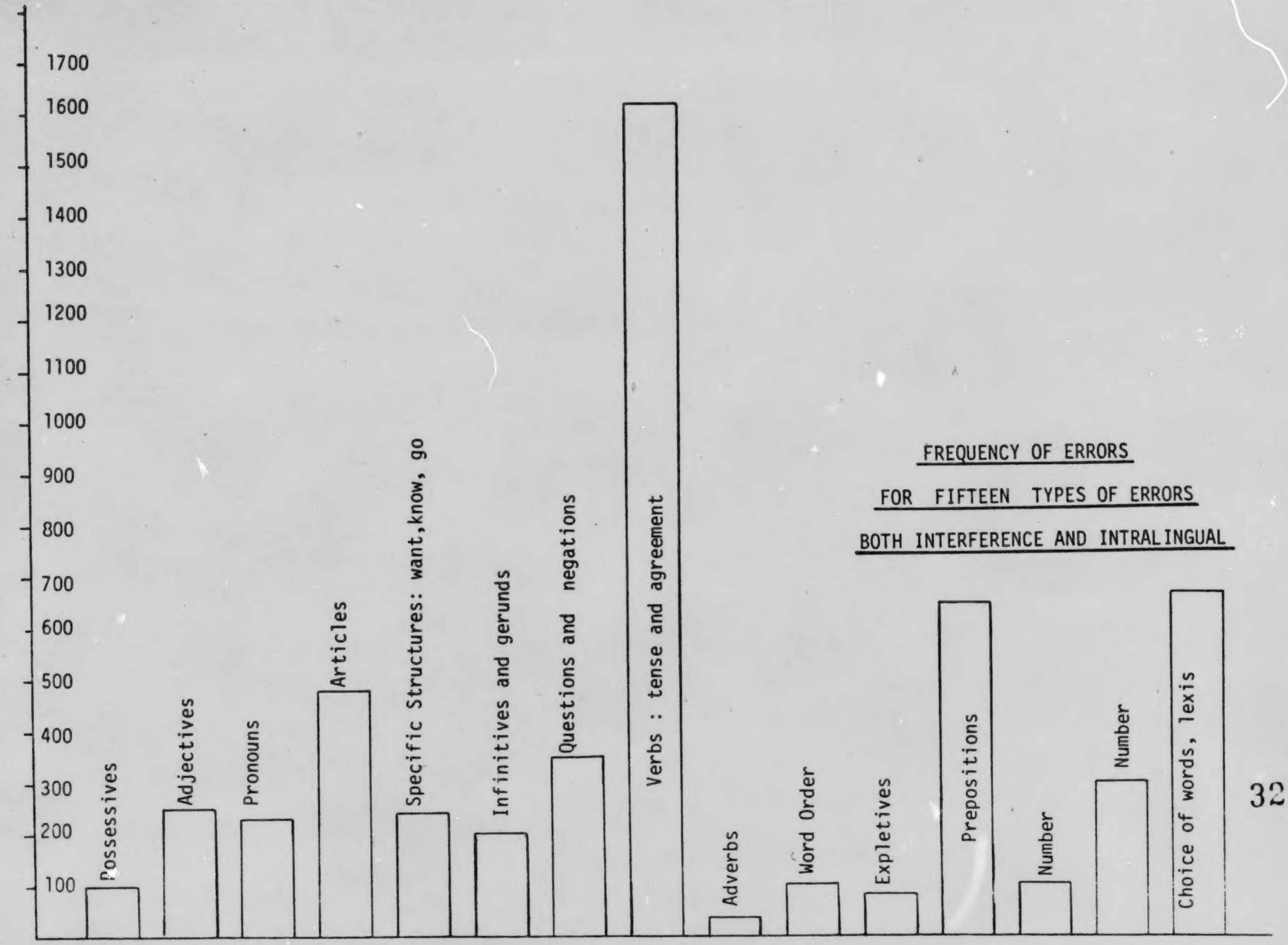
	Number (out of 5000)	Percentage
Possessives	93	1.86
Adjectives	249	4.98
Pronouns	231	4.62
Articles	475	9.50
Specific structures: *want, think* etc.	233	4.60
Infinitives and gerunds	160	3.20
Questions and negations	305	6.05
Verbs: tenses and conjugations	1681	33.62
Adverbs	21	.42
Word Order	108	2.16
Expletives	98	1.96
Prepositions	628	12.56
Conjunctions	79	1.58
Number	280	5.60
Choice of Words	600	12.00

List 2 - Total Number of Errors for Fifteen Types of Interference Errors

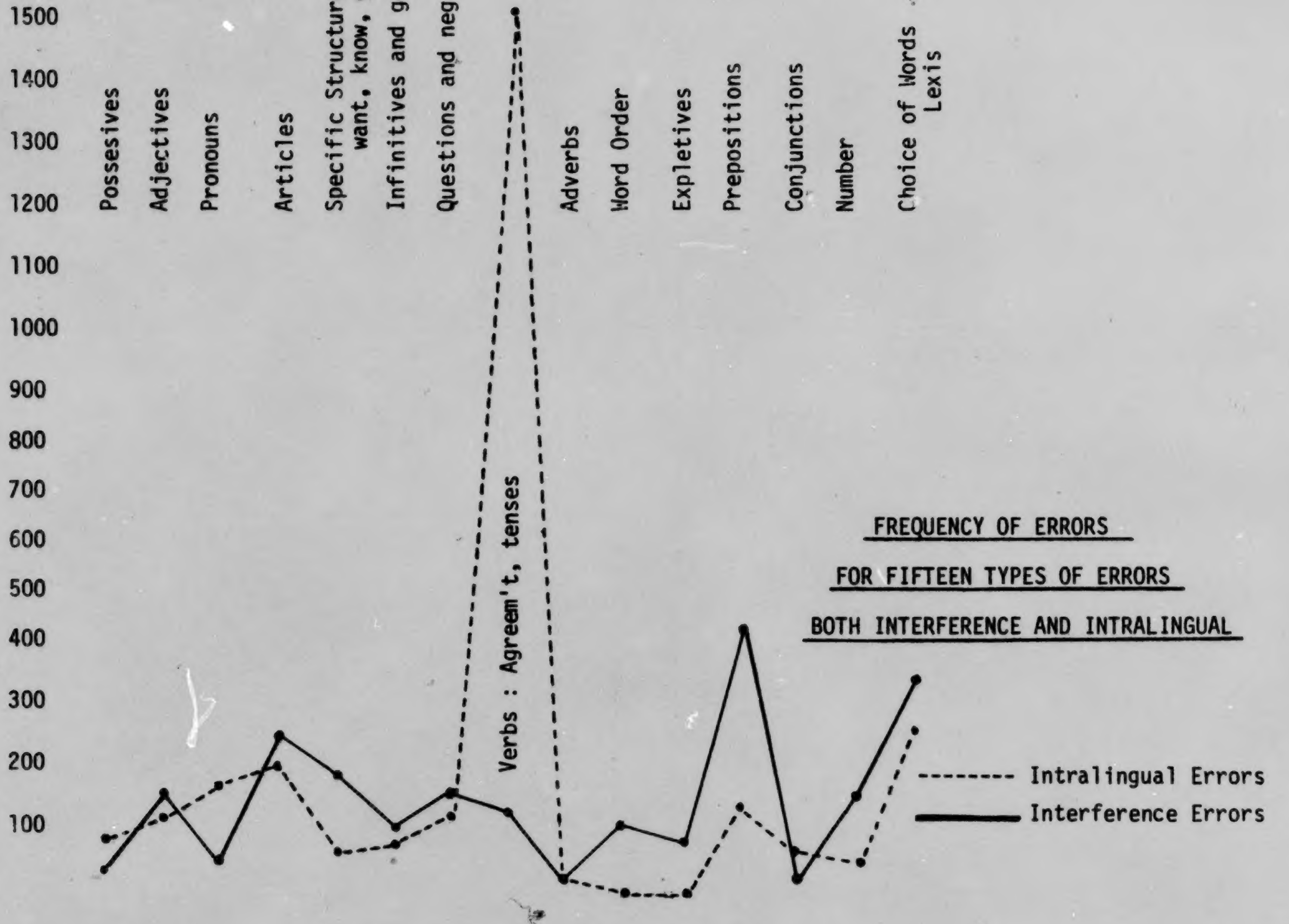
	Number (out of 2500)	Percentage
Possessives	24	.96
Adjectives	161	6.44
Pronouns	51	4.44
Articles	254	10.16
Specific structures: *want, think* etc.	200	8.00
Infinitives and gerunds	103	4.12
Questions and negations	172	6.88
Verbs: Tenses and conjugations	145	5.80
Adverbs	9	.36
Word Order	108	4.32
Expletives	98	3.92
Prepositions	472	18.88
Conjunctions	11	.64
Number	176	7.04
Choice of words, lexis	377	15.08

List 3 - Total Number of Errors for Fifteen Types of Intralingual Errors

	Number (out of 3000)	Percentage
Possessives	69	2.30
Adjectives	119	3.97
Pronouns	180	6.00
Articles	221	7.37
Specific structures: *want, think* etc.	33	1.10
Infinitive and gerunds	57	1.90
Questions and negations	133	4.43
Verbs: Tenses and conjugations	1536	51.20
Adverbs	12	.40
Word Order	0	0
Expletives	0	0
Prepositions	151	5.03
Conjunctions	68	2.27
Number	104	3.47
Choice of words, lexis	227	7.57



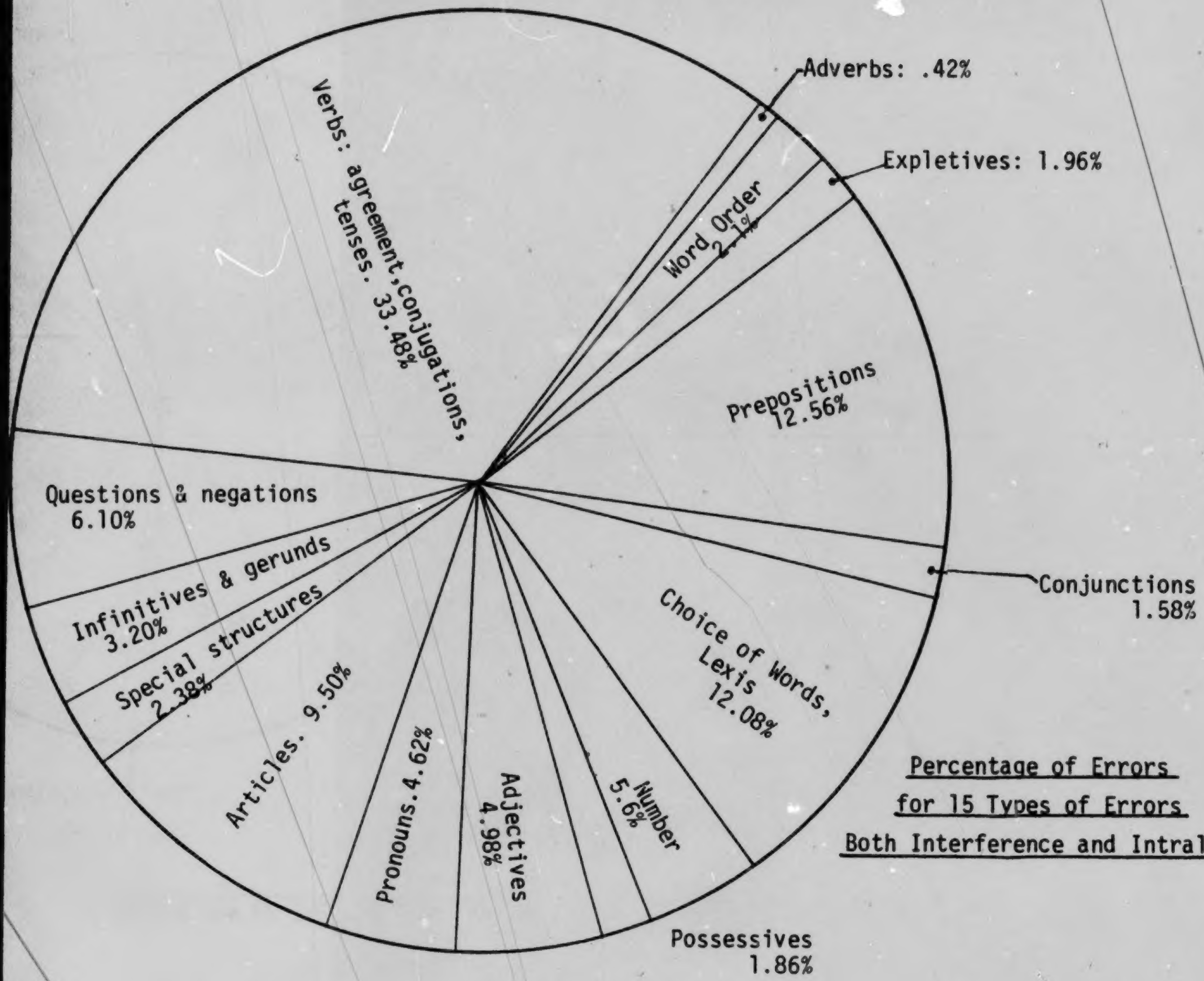
FREQUENCY OF ERRORS
FOR FIFTEEN TYPES OF ERRORS
BOTH INTERFERENCE AND INTRALINGUAL



FREQUENCY OF ERRORS

FOR FIFTEEN TYPES OF ERRORS

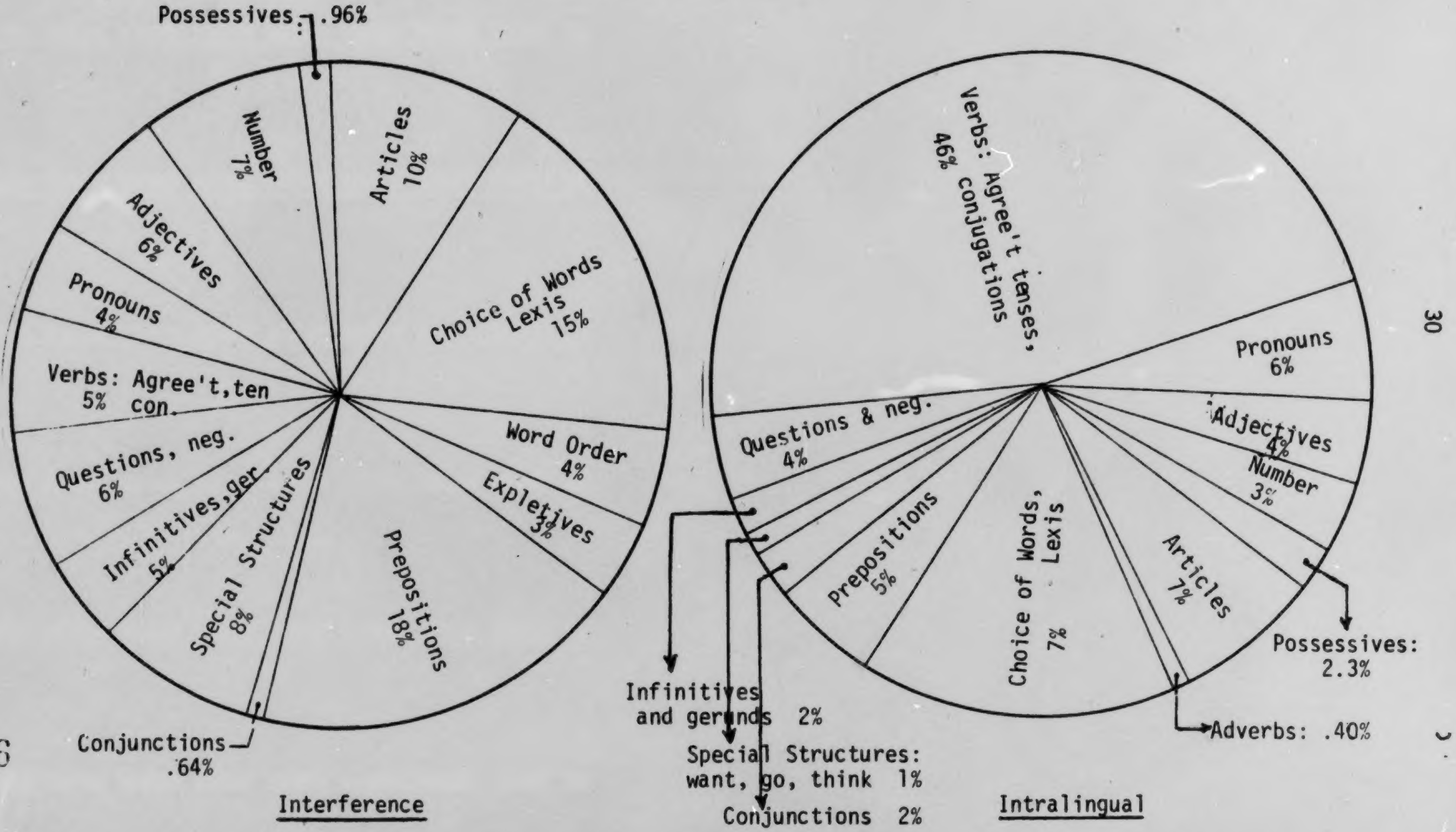
BOTH INTERFERENCE AND INTRALINGUAL



Percentage of Errors
for 15 Types of Errors
Both Interference and Intralingual

COMPARISON OF THE PERCENTAGE OF INTERFERENCE AND INTRALINGUAL ERRORS

FOR FIFTEEN TYPES OF ERRORS



Discussion on the Total Number of Errors for Fifteen Types of Errors

The results we have on our lists and tables concur with Olsson's (1972:25) research where verbs were found to be the greatest troublemakers. In 300 reproduction tests, 850 errors were listed of which more than 500 were violations of rules for verbs. Our figures approach that proportion, as out of 5000 errors, 2074 were errors in verbs (we have isolated the gerunds and infinitives, negations and questions, and special structures to judge of their relative importance, but the total gives 2074 errors in verbs).

Errors in lexis also add up considerably according to Olsson and Duskova. The latter (1969:11-36) reports 233 errors out of 1007 which is still more important than our 600 out of 5000. Her most frequent error, however, occurred with the use of articles which amounted to 260 always out of 1007 errors. Again, the proportion is superior to ours with 475 out of 5000. Whatever the discrepancy between these figures and ours, the findings indicate how important these aspects of language learning are and how much emphasis should be granted them in teaching and in textbook designing.

Speaking of teaching emphasis, a rather important comment should be added here about proportions. We could find no definite figures in researchers' work on the number of errors in prepositions, but according to our own, 12% of errors are ascribable to them; we could find different figures in other researchers' work, yet if we correlate the amount of space devoted to them in textbooks, we may find that it is very small. The conclusion we may draw, is that prepositions are difficult to teach but should occupy more of teachers' time and energy.

Our errors of both the interference and intralingual types it was mentioned, indicate special problems with verbs. If we consult only the interference errors, we find that they are also a cause of frequent errors (620:200 for special structures, 103 for infinitives and gerunds, 172 for negatives and questions,145 for tenses and conjugations) but the proportion of intralingual errors far surpasses this total with 1759 (33 for special structures, 57 for infinitives and gerunds, 133 for questions and negations and 1536 with tenses and conjugations). This finding corroborates Duskova's (1969:19) observation that a large number of errors seem to have little if any connection with the mother tongue. She gives as proof the use of the article in English for Czechs. "There is no article in Czech, and therefore no frame of reference. The presentation in grammars is so inadequate that learners must make their own system by intuition. Once this system is internalized, interference from other terms of the article system and their functions begins". (1969:17). These are the errors we have termed *intralingual*.

Duskova's comments, aside from confirming our own results, indicate why error analysis is so important in the discovery of what system the learners have built and how to correct it. It does not mean, however, that contrastive analysis should be left aside, for if we consult the dual-termed graph of interference and intralingual errors, we find that in all types of errors except the verb forms, interference from the mother tongue is the more potent source of error - especially in word order, expletives and prepositions. Contrastive analysis with its predictive value is a valuable instrument to prevent and correct errors.

Conclusion

Following the calculations, comparisons and considerations of this research on the errors analysis of the complete list of errors made during one full year by five groups of low, intermediate and advanced English levels of Francophone college students, a few salient conclusions could be retained.

The first is that negative transfer is an important source of errors, and that consequently comparative analysis is useful to predict areas of potential difficulty. Another important cause of errors is intralingual, that is, due to the second language itself. This in turn, would justify error analysis as a means to discover just what forms and functions of the second language are sources of errors and would be further proof, along with other researchers' work that both comparative analysis and error analysis should be advocated to remedy and obviate interference from the mother tongue and the second language itself.

Among the possible causes of this interference from the second language in our corpus, overgeneralization seems to be the most common, possibly due to the audio-visual method used to teach the students, which method did not seem to promote the understanding of the grammar underlying the structures.

Both with interlingual and intralingual errors, verbs and prepositions with lexis lagging not far behind, are the major trouble-makers, and again with these types of errors, the same errors rank high for both the low and advanced levels and remain so - and almost in the same order - after two years of English. This would suggest that greater importance be granted the items that rank high on our lists while teaching, planning textbooks and curriculum content. Buteau (1970:142) notes, in fact, that teaching emphasis may create awareness of subsequent cues and thus promote correct utterances. She adduces as proof the verbs *tenir* and *venir* which are given special importance in textbooks and which reap fewer errors.

To reduce errors of all types and promote communication and fluency, an eclectic method is suggested. For the present state of the art, it seems the most promising to us, but perhaps future research will lead to better methods that will, at one and the same time, favour communication, fluency and correct utterances.

These aspects of L_2 learning we have just considered were termed "minor" because of the relative value of some or because they were not studied very seriously, but a few are *per se* very important. If, for example, the problem of the best method to be used could be solved in spite of numerous variables it supposes, the key to L_2 learning would be available. The rank-ordering of errors was considered the major breakthrough of the research, however, because of the extent of work put on it and because of its down-to-earth relevance to L_2 learning and to the designing of textbooks.

From the analysis and number of certain errors we have dealt with in the preceding section, we may judge the difficulty of certain features of the learning of English as an L_2, yet it might be still more helpful for teachers and linguists to know exactly what specific items are the greatest source of errors and in what order they rank. The following rank-ordered lists have therefore been compiled from our corpus of 5000 errors. A first list comprises the errors of the students of all levels added together; a second and a third, those of the lowest levels (101-201) and the highest (901-902) calculated separately.

For more rapid recognition, each of the errors is illustrated by a typical sentence taken among the data. Thus error rank-order number 3 in the lists of all the levels: **He will be operate.** (operated) exemplifies the omission of the *d,ed* or the irregular past participle necessary with verbs in the passive mood; error rank number 16: **She have a bid dog** (has) indicates errors in the conjugation of the verb *have*. When more than one error occupies the same rank, for example, rank number 18 which comprises two different errors - the use of the *s* -morpheme on adjectives and the omission of the *s* -morpheme on the plural, the rank number is repeated.

RANK-ORDERED LIST
OF THE STUDENTS
OF ALL LEVELS

	Rank	% of error	Number out of 5000 errors
Omission of the s-morpheme on the third person singular, present tense: Father *decide*. (decides)	1	7.3	365
Erroneous use of the definite article: *The* cancer (Ø)	2	4.38	219
The stem used instead of the past participle: He will be *operate*. (operated)	3	4.	200
Other prepositions used instead of *to*: Listening friends (listening to friends)	4	3.2	160
Omission of the definite article: In front of hall (of the hall)	5	2.66	133
Other prepositions used instead of *O*-preposition: ask *at* friends. (Ø)	6	2.14	107
Errors with verbs of volition: He wanted *that Gale recover*. (Gale to recover)	7	2.1	105
Other prepositions used instead of *at*: I work *to* a big camp. (at)	8	2.06	103
Be used instead of *have*: When the professor *was* arrived (had)	9	1.68	84

	Rank	% of error	Number out of 5000 errors
Have used instead of *be*: You *have* 19. (are)	10	1.36	68
Omission of the indefinite article: The love of mother. (love of a mother)	11	1.32	66
Other prepositions used instead of *of*: He thought *to* you. (of)	12	1.24	62
Omission of verb *be*: He neatly dressed. (He is)	13	1.22	61
The use of the present instead of the past: After his father *die* he went to Toronto. (died)	14	1.2	57
For instead of *to* in front of an infinitive: A letter *for* scare you (to)	15	1.1	55
Have used instead of *has*: She *have* a big dog. (has)	16	1.08	54
Do used instead of *does*: *Do* he live here? (Does)	17	1.02	51
S-morpheme used on an adjective: Her *blonds* hair (blond)	18	1.0	50
Omission of the *s*-morpheme on the plural: In all the *classroom* (classrooms)	18	1.0	50
The active voice used instead of the passive: When *it modifies* (it is modified)	19	.98	49

	Rank	% of error	Number out of 5000 errors
The wrong tense used in the answer: How did they get the ball? Answer: They *get* the ball (got)	20	.96	48
Other prepositions used instead of *in*: Verbs *at* the third person singular (in)	21	.94	47
Lack of agreement of the pronoun with its antecedent: Put *it* the crackers on the table. (them)	22	.92	46
Question word + Ø + S + V instead of Question word + do + S + V: Why the baby cries? (Why does)	23	.86	43
Tell used instead of *say*: The students *told* that their professor had no authority. (said)	24	.84	42
The infinitive used instead of and after *go* and *come*: Go *to* put it. (go and)	25	.82	41
Question word + S + V instead of: Question word + V + S: How old *Peter was*? (was Peter)	26	.80	40
The feminine or masculine gender used instead of a neuter: *She* (a house) has four bedrooms. (It)	27	.78	39
The adjective placed after the noun instead of in front of it: The *speech indirect* (indirect speech)	28	.76	38
The simple present tense used instead of the present continuous: Where are you going? We *go* to Miami. (We're going)	29	.74	37

	Rank	% of error	Number out of 5000 errors
Errors with expletives: In the house *he has* four bedrooms. (there are)	30	.72	36
The mixing up of tenses in the same or neighbouring sentences: I jumped out of bed; *it's* too late. (it was)	31	.68	34
Is that or *is* replacing *do, does,* or *did* or inverted *be* + S. *Is that* you know the rule? (Do)	32	.66	33
Omission or incorrect use of *would*: What *was* Judy like to see? (would)	33	.60	30
S + V + Adv. + O instead of S + V + O + Adv.: I like *very much hockey*. (like hockey very much)	34	.58	29
The present perfect used instead of the simple past: My father *has fallen* last night. (fell)	34	.58	29
The plural used instead of the singular: A *views*. (view)	34	.58	29
Than used instead of *that*: He knows *than* K wants to marry C. (that)	34	.58	29
Errors with reflexives: I promised *me* (myself)	34	.58	29
A possessive adjective that agrees neither with the possessor nor the thing possessed: Barbara wants to show *his* new dress. (her)	35	.56	28
Do, does, did used instead of *be: Does* the journey more pleasant? (Was)	36	.54	27

	Rank	% of error	Number out of 5000 errors
S-morpheme added to other persons than the third singular, present tense: You *looks* pretty. (look)	37	.52	26
A used instead of *an* in front of a vowel or aspirated *h:* *A* old boat. (an)	38	.50	25
The article used with a possessive proper noun: *The* Mary's arm (0)	39	.48	24
The present continuous used instead of the simple present: Phys. ed. *is giving* you energy when you do it often. (gives)	39	.48	24
The gender of the thing possessed used instead of that of the possessor: *His* husband. (her)	40	.46	23
Who used instead of *which*: An action *who* isn't. (which)	40	.46	23
The wrong conjunction used after *same*: The same work *than* us. (as)	40	.46	23
Was used instead of *were*: They was considered. (were)	40	.46	23
The infinitive used after a preposition: After *work* hard. (working)	41	.44	22
Sequence of tenses: the future used instead of the conditional: Dr. Riley said that he *will* come. (would)	41	.44	22

	Rank	% of error	Number out of 5000 errors
The possessive pronoun used instead of the possessive adjective: *Yours* friend. (Your)	42	.40	20
The past used instead of the stem for an infinitive: He has to *studied*. (study)	42	.40	20
To used after *can*: He can *to* use them. (Ø)	43	.38	19
Sequence of tenses: The present used instead of the past: He told them Pa *does* not love them. (did)	43	.38	19
Other prepositions used instead of *from*: Imported *of* Italy. (from)	44	.36	18
Question word + V + S in indirect speech instead of Question word + S + V He asked me what *were his mistakes*. (what his mistakes were)	44	.36	18
The passive used instead of the active voice: He *is told* my daughter. (told)	44	.36	18
A singular used after *one of*: One of the most important *writer*. (writers)	44	.36	18
A singular used with *people*: The people *doesn't* move. (don't)	44	.36	18
Make used instead of *do*: Make it with courage. (do)	44	.36	18
The simple past used instead of the present perfect: He *didn't see* him since 12 years. (hasn't seen)	45	.34	17

	Rank	% of error	Number out of 5000 errors
His used instead of *is: His* he right? (Is)	45	.34	17
Other prepositions used instead of *for*: He left *from* Quebec. (for)	46	.32	16
$S + V + \begin{matrix}\text{always}\\ \text{also}\\ \text{really}\end{matrix}$ instead of: $S + \begin{matrix}\text{always}\\ \text{also}\\ \text{really}\end{matrix} + V$: Lane *plays always*. (Lane always plays)	46	.32	17
An *s*-morpheme used on an infinitive: Does he *likes* English? (like)	46	.32	17
The use of the past participle instead of the past or present perfect. (Arthur *gone* to the funeral). (went)	46	.32	17
Can used for the future or the infinitive: You *will can*. (will be able)	47	.30	15
Are used instead of *is*: *Are* he alone? (Is)	47	.30	15
The conditional used instead of the subjunctive: If I *would be* a boy. (were)	48	.28	14
The past participle used instead of the past: He *gone* there. (went)	48	.28	14
Were used instead of *was*: She were so beautiful. (was)	49	.26	13
The possessor and the thing possessed inverted: *Birthday's*. (Ann's birthday)	49	.26	13
For used in front of an infinitive: *For* to ask him. (∅)	49	.26	13

	Rank	% of error	Number out of 5000 errors
A numeral used instead of an indefinite article: There is *one* picture on the wall. (a)	49	.26	13
An *'s* added to the name of a thing: A *baseball's* bat. (baseball)	49	.26	13
An *s* added to people: *Peoples* were talking. (People)	50	.24	12
For + *gerund* instead of *to* + *infinitive*: They work *for saving* money. (to save)	50	.24	12
Is used instead of *his*. I understand *is* message. (his)	50	.24	12
A plural used with *everybody*: Everybody *like* a holiday. (likes)	50	.24	12
A singular used when many possess one thing: To save people's *life*. (lives)	50	.24	12
How omitted with *know, show, learn, teach*: Show *me to play* tennis. (me how to play)	51	.22	11
Make used instead of have: She *makes* a bridge built. (has)	51	.22	11
The wrong structure used after *make*: A book which makes us *to live*. (live)	51	.22	11
Fell used instead of *feel*: I fell uncomfortable. (feel)	51	.22	11

	Rank	% of error	Number out of 5000
The past used instead of the past continuous: The boy *played* when he choked. (was playing)	51	.22	11
S + V + Ind. O + O instead of S + V + O + Ind. O: Barbara likes *in Helen's house the pictures*. (likes the pictures in Helen's house)	51	.22	11
The indefinite article omitted in an exclamation with a singular: *What nice* puppy! (What a nice)	52	.20	11
Loose used instead of *lose:* Did they *loose* their dog? (lose)	52	.20	10
Errors in the use of *whose:* A girl *that her* name was Judy. (whose name)	53	.18	9
The comparative used instead of the superlative: Her *better* friend. (best)	53	.18	9
The past used with *can*: She can *proved*. (prove)	53	.18	9
The adverb used instead of the adjective: It's *normally*. (normal)	53	.18	9
Leave used instead of *live*: Uncle George *leaves* in Montreal. (lives)	53	.18	9
The wrong case of the pronoun: What's wrong with *he?* (his)	53	.18	9
Which used instead of *who*: A person *which* works. (who)	53	.18	9
The indicative used instead of the subjunctive: If I *was* their child. (were)	53	.18	9

	Rank	% of Error	Number out of 5000 errors
A possessive adjective used instead of a possessive pronoun: A cat like *your*. (yours)	54	.16	8
A used instead of *one* to indicate the date: *A* day his father was arrested. (one)	54	.16	8
Die used instead of *dead*: The dog isn't *died*. (dead)	54	.16	8
Has used instead of *have*: You *has* a fever. (have)	54.	.16	8
The infinitive used instead of the gerund after verbs meaning to begin, to continue, to finish: She stopped *to cry*. (stopped crying)	54	.16	8
Say used instead of *tell*: What must I *say* her? (tell)	54	.16	8
Dead used for *die*: He will *dead*. (die)	54	.16	8
The positive used instead of the negative with *can*: You *can* imagine what happened. (can't)	54	.16	8
Can + Stem + s-morpheme: He can *predicts*. (predict)	55	.14	7
Live used instead of *leave*: When are we *living?* (leaving)	55	.14	7
Incorrect structure used instead of *make*: She *laught me* all the time. (She made me laugh)	55	.14	7
The past continuous and the simple past inverted: When the teacher *was coming*, all the pupils *studied*. (came, were studying)	55	.14	7

	Rank	% of error	Number out of 5000 errors
The past used instead of the imperative: *Described* the society. (Describe)	55	.14	7
The present perfect used instead of the past perfect: He believed what she *has* been saying. (had)	56	.12	6
And used instead of *an*: It's *and* auxiliary. (An)	56	.12	6
The use of *do, does, did* with a wh-question word when it is subject: What *did* happen? (0)	56	.12	6
Where used instead of *were*: B. and S. *where* deaf. (were)	56	.12	6
Does used instead of *do: Does* the exams bother you? (Do)	56	.12	6
Will + present participle: Will you *looking?* (look)	56	.12	6
Must + past: She must *forgot*. (forget)	57	.12	5
The past used instead of the present: We always *employed* the article with... (employ (use))	57	.12	5
Is used instead of *are*: *Is* you stiff? (Are)	57	.12	5
A used with a plural in an exclamation: What *a* lovely *kittens*! (0)	57	.10	5
Faulty irregular plurals: Three *mans*. (men)	57	.10	5
More + adjective instead of adjective + *er:* Peter is *more tall* than John. (taller)	57	.10	5

	Rank	% of error	Number out of 5000 errors
Much used with countables: Too *much* things. (many)	57	.10	5
Must + stem + s-morpheme: He must *eats*. (eat)	57	.10	5
Must + To + infinitive: They must *to* stop. (0)	57	.10	5
Of used instead of *in* with a collective noun and a superlative: John is the smallest *of* the group. (in)	57	.10	5
Faulty omission of the relative pronoun: *A man is considered* honest is happy. (A man who is considered)	57	.10	5
Wrong structure used with *hope*: I hope *I will be* better Saturday. (I am better)	57	.10	5
Double negatives: They hadn't *no* choice. (any)	57	.10	5
What used instead of *that*: I thought *what* it was you. (that)	57	.10	5
Wrong structure used with *need*: They have need *of* you. (0)	57	.10	5
The use of *be* with *agree*: I *am* agree. (0)	57	.10	5
Interference from the French *piece* meaning room: The principal *piece* of the house. (room)	57	.10	5
S + C + V instead of S + V + O: I didn't *her believe*. (believe her)	57	.10	5

	Rank	% of error	Number out of 5000 errors
The use of *have* with *did*: Why *did the dog had not catch?* (Why didn't the dog catch?)	57	.10	5
Many used with uncountables: How *many* cinnamon? (much)	58	.08	4
What used instead of *which* or *that:* A film *what* is made. (which)	58	.08	4
The modifying noun and the modified noun inverted: *juice fruit, pane window.* (fruit juice, window pane)	58	.08	4
An infinitive used instead of a gerund to complete a noun: Many ways *to spend* money. (of spending)	58	.08	4
Do, does + present participle: Does she *singing?* (sing)	58	.08	4
Would used instead of should: I think the girl *would* be followed. (should)	58	.08	4
That used instead of *what: That* was wrong? (What)	58	.08	4
As used instead of *has*: She *as* lost. (has)	58	.08	4
Arrive used for events: It *arrives* often that.. (happens)	58	.08	4
$S + \left\{\begin{matrix}\text{up}\\ \text{off}\\ \text{down}\end{matrix}\right. + 0$ instead of $S + 0 + \left\{\begin{matrix}\text{up}\\ \text{off}\\ \text{down}\end{matrix}\right.$: I'll *check up you.* (check you up)	58	.08	4

	Rank	% of error	Number out of 5000 errors
Enough used in front of an adjective: The problem is *enough difficult.* (difficult enough)	58	.08	4
The wrong auxiliary used in the tag word: You've four sons, isn't you?	58	.08	4
Dead used instead of *death*. I don't like *dead*. (death)	58	.08	4
Feel used instead of *fall*: Do you think they *feel* in love? (fall)	58	.08	4
S + V + Pro. + O instead of S + Pro. + V + O: Do you *want all* coffee? (Do you all want)	58	.08	4
S-morpheme used on a noun taken as an adjective: A ten-*years* old girl. (year)	59	.06	3
Inversion of the verb and subject in an exclamation: What a lovely skirt *has she*. (she has)	59	.06	3
Lie used instead of *lay: Lay* down, Towser. (Lie)	59	.06	3
What used instead of *when: What* are you going? (Where)	59	.06	3
Of used instead of *than*: I am less sure *of* you. (than)	59	.06	3
Adj. + N + only instead of Adj. + only + N: His *friend only* will not help him. (only friend)	59	.06	3
There used instead of *their:* They must keep *there* jobs. (their)	59	.06	3

	Rank	% of error	Number out of 5000 errors
Other prepositions used instead of *about:* Preoccupied *in* his assistants. (about)	59	.06	3
Other prepositions used instead of *after:* Look *at* his sisters. (after)	59	.06	3
A used instead of *the* with a superlative: He is *a* smallest in town. (the)	59	.06	3
Wrong structure for the future of *can:* You *will be to* change. (will be able to)	59	.06	3
In correct use of the past of *must:* The work that I *must* finish was not done. (had to)	59	.06	3
Interference of the French *rester:* Do you want me to *rest* tonight? (stay)	59	.06	3
Wrong structure used after *think:* He thinks *complicate* matters. (he will complicate)	59	.06	3
A superlative used instead of a comparative: My brother is *smallest* than me. (smaller)	59	.06	3
A plural used with *each:* Each *players*. (player)	59	.06	3
Wrong structure of *of which:* The car *who* her dreamed. (of which)	59	.06	3
The present continuous used instead of the present perfect continuous: For some time, the coal miners *are menacing* to go on strike. (have been menacing)	59	.06	3

	Rank	% of error	Number out of 5000 errors
Incorrect contractions: *He're* are the crackers. Yes *it's*. (Here are, Yes, it is)	59	.06	3
Incorrect imperative: *Let's me drive*. (Let)	59	.06	3
Can + present participle: You can *bringing*. (bring)	59	.06	3
It used with a masculine antecedent: *It's* a worthy man. (He's)	59	.06	3
One another used instead of *each other:* If we help *one another*, both of us will profit. (each other)	59	.06	3
Incorrect spelling of the reflexive pronouns: To cure *themself*. (themselves)	59	.06	3
What's used instead of *what:* *What's* bad luck! (What)	60	.04	2
Interference from the French *sympathique:* She is very *sympatic*. (sympathetic)	60	.04	2
Interference from the French *traduction:* My *traduction* was good. (translation)	60	.04	2
Interference from the French *se servir de:* How many did they *serve of* dogs? (How many dogs did they use?)	60	.04	2
Wrong spelling of *suddenly:* *Suddently* I saw. (Suddenly)	60	.04	2

	Rank	% of error	Number out of 5000 errors
Does used instead of *do* in a tag word: You have four sons *does'nt* you? (don't)	60	.04	2
The comparative conjunction left out: More *money a mechanic.* (More money than a mechanic)	60	.04	2
Wrong spelling: My *diner* is ready. (dinner)	60	.04	2
King used instead of *kind:* What king of travel? (kind)	60	.04	2
S + V + Adv. of time + Adv. of place instead of S + V + Adv. of place + Adv. of time: When he came *the first time in town.* (When he came in town the first time)	60	.04	2
S + have + just + V instead of S + just + have + V: She has just to break up. (She just has to)	60	.04	2
The past perfect used instead of the simple past: The students *had liked* their visit last week. (liked)	60	.04	2
Did used with *could:* Did the psychiatrist could cure? (Could the psychiatrist cure)	60	.04	2
Sequence of tenses: the past used instead of the present: X says to Gale that the coach *was* deaf. (is)	60	.04	2
Will used as a main verb: When *will I better?* (will I be)	60	.04	2

	Rank	% of error	Number out of 5000 errors
Should used instead of *must:* He *should* work hard; he has no choice. (must)	60	.04	2
Wrong spelling of the pronoun: Six of *hem*. (them)	60	.04	3
Alone used instead of *along:* They get *alone* together. (along)	60	.04	2
Won't used instead of *want:* Mary won't the bread. (wants)	60	.04	2
To + let + not + 0 instead of: Not + to + let + 0. She promised *to let not* Devola marry. (not to let)	60	.04	2
The interrogative used instead of the imperative: *Do you turn* right. (Turn)	60	.04	2
A superlative used instead of the positive in an exclamation: What a *largest* envelope! (large)	60	.04	2
Most used with a superlative of two syllables: The *most funny*. (funniest)	60	.04	2
S-morpheme on a personal pronoun: They like *thems*. (them)	60	.04	2
A personal pronoun used instead of a possessive pronoun: The same as *us*. (ours)	60	.04	2
A present participle used instead of the infinitive: Enough money to *living*. (live)	60	.04	2
S-morpheme on an infinitive: She needs to *takes*. (take)	60	.04	2

RANK-ORDERED LIST OF THE ERRORS OF THE TOP GROUP (901-902)

	Rank	% of error	Number out of 1000 errors
Omission of the s-morpheme on the third person singular, present tense: He *know*. (knows)	1	9.1	91
Erroneous use of the definite article: *The* life is hard. (0)	2	6.5	65
Other prepositions used instead of *to:* I listen your opinions. (listen to)	3	4.2	42
The use of the stem or past instead of the past participle: She is *impress*. (impressed)	4	3.8	38
Omission of the definite article: In front of hall. (of the hall)	5	2.8	28
Wrong order for questions: *Why you didn't* say? (didn't you)	6	2.6	26
Other prepositions used instead of 0-prepositions: Change *of* province. (change province)	7	2.3	23
Wrong structure after verbs of volition: He didn't want *that anyone know*. (want anyone to know)	8	2.2	22
Other prepositions used instead of *in:* He doesn't believe *at* this legend. (in)	9	2.0	20

	Rank	% of error	Number out of 1000 errors
Other prepositions used instead of *at:* He looked everyone. (looked at)	10	1.8	18
S + V + Adv. + O instead of S + V + O + Adv.: I liked *very much* my holidays. (I liked my holidays very much)	10	1.8	18
The present used for the past: Last year he *miss* money. (he missed (lacked))	11	1.4	14
Have used instead of *has*: She *have* a poetic style. (has)	11	1.4	14
The future or other tense used instead of the conditional: I asked what I *will* do. (would)	12	1.2	12
Same followed by the incorrect conjunction: He was the same age *that* his girlfriend. (as)	12	1.2	12
S added to the adjective: with accurat*es* shots. (accurate)	12	1.2	12
A singular used after *one of:* One of the best way. (ways)	13	1.1	11
The present perfect tense used instead of the simple past: The hockey game last night *has been* good. (was)	14	1.0	10
Other prepositions used instead of *on:* *In* this occasion. (on)	14	1.0	10
Other prepositions used instead of *of:* I disapprove your behaviour. (disapprove of)	14	1.0	10

	Rank	% of error	Number out of 1000 errors
The use of the present continuous instead of the simple present or past: Phys. ed. *is giving* you energy when you do it regularly. (gives)	15	.9	9
The present or past tense used instead of the present perfect: I never *went* to England so far. (have never gone)	15	.9	9
Say used instead of *tell:* He *said* her that we are allowed. (told)	15	.9	9
always S + V + Adv. also instead of S + Adv. + V: really He is playing *always* the same tune. (He is always playing)	15	.9	9
The infinitive used after a preposition: Before *to die*. (before dying)	15	.9	9
S-morpheme used on other persons than the third person singular, present tense: Y ou *looks* pretty. (look)	16	.8	8
A singular used instead of a plural when an object is owned by many: They try to keep their *mind* on their work. (minds)	16	.8	8
Other prepositions used instead of *for*: The remedy *at* the coal strike. (for)	17	.7	7
Omission of the *do, does, did:* Why *the doctor believes*. (Why does the doctor believe)	17	.7	7

	Rank	% of error	Number out of 1000 errors
Do used instead of *does*: Why *do* the Englishman have. (does)	17	.7	7
The use of the past participle instead of the past or present perfect: For New Year's day I *gone* to dinner. (went)	17	.7	7
Wrong structure used after *make* and *have*: It makes the electricity *to run*. (run)	17	.7	7
Everybody used with a plural: Everybody *like* a holiday. (likes)	18	.6	6
A singular used with *people:* People likes. (like)	18	.6	6
Do, does, did, used instead of *not to:* I advise you *to don't* think. (not to)	18	.6	6
The use of the wrong tense in the answer: What responsibilities did Mary keep? *Answer* She keep... (kept)	18	.6	6
The omission of *be:* Why the man embarrassed? (Why was the man)	18	.6	6
Than used instead of *that*: You think *than* she stays. (that)	18	.6	6
The present used instead of the past in the subordinate: Professor F noticed that Mr. Stewart *doesn't* lose. (didn't)	18	.6	6

	Rank	% of error	Number out of 1000 errors
Other prepositions used instead of *from:* He wanted to keep Campbell playing. (from playing)	18	.6	6
For + gerund used instead of to + stem: I wanted to get up *for seeing*. (to see)	18	.6	6
The conditional used instead of the subjunctive: If she *would have* taken... (had taken)	18	.6	6
Singular used instead of the plural: Many *story*. (stories)	19	.5	5
The use of *do, does, did* when not required: What *did* it *happen?* (happened)	19	.5	5
The mixing of tenses in the same or neighbouring sentences: One day, his father drove him; he *is* sick. (was)	19	.5	5
Can followed by stem + *ed:* He can *imagined*. (imagine)	19	.5	5
Who used for a thing: A bridge *who* was suspended. (which)	19	.5	5
Is used instead of *his*: He is known for *is* talent. (his)	20	.4	4
The past participle used alone instead of the present or past: Lady Hester *shown* moral qualities. (showned)	20	.4	4
Confusion between the use of *have* and *make*: He *has made* a house built. (had a house built)	20	.4	4

	Rank	% of error	Number out of 1000 errors
People used in the plural: The young *peoples* didn't have so many chances. (people)	20	.4	4
Whose rendered erroneously: A kind of man *who is* character changes. (whose character)	20	.4	4
Have used instead of *be:* He *had* 7 years old. (was)	20	.4	4
Translation of the French reflexive: He was proud of *him*. (himself)	20	.4	4
A possessive agreeing with the thing possessed (as in French): *His* boyfriend (Janet's). (her)	20	.4	4
Do used instead of *go* in certain expressions: *Do* snow shoe. (go snow-shoeing)	21	.3	3
Omission of the indefinite article: With abstract noun. (an)	21	.3	3
The past used with *did:* Why did the boy *became* so sick? (become)	21	.3	3
The simple present tense used instead of the present continuous: I *write* to you about my future. (am writing)	21	.3	3
A possessive pronoun used instead of a possessive adjective: *Theirs* problems are serious. (their)	21	.3	3

	Rank	% of error	Number out of 1000 errors
The wrong form of the future or the infinitive with *can:* They will can adopt.	21	.3	3
An adverb used instead of an adjective: It's *naturally*. (natural)	21	.3	3
Wrong spelling of the reflexive: To cure *themself*. (themselves)	21	.3	3
S + V + Ind. O + O instead of S + V + O + Ind. O: I saw *in the newspapers the news*. (the news in the newspapers)	21	.3	3
S + Adv. + V instead of S + V + Adv.: They too *delicately do their job*. (They do their job too)	21	.3	3
S + O + V instead of S + V + O: He wanted *her reaction* to know. (He wanted to know her reaction)	21	.3	3
Tell used instead of *say:* The students *told* that their professor has no authority. (said)	21	.3	3
The infinitive used after *come* and *go: Go see* the doctor. (Go and see)	21	.3	3
The active voice used instead of the passive: The action is not *doing* now. (being done)	22	.3	3
A possessive adjective that agrees with the thing possessed in French rather than the possessor: He understands *her* daughter. (his)	22	.2	2

	Rank	% of error	Number out of 1000 errors
The incorrect omission or use of would: She rather see. (would rather)	22	.2	2
The noun preceding the adjective: *Affairs office*. (office affairs)	22	.2	2
The article used with a possessive proper noun: The Mr. Collins's offer. (Ø Mr. Collins's)	22	.2	2
's added to the name of a thing: He threw the *car's key*. (the key of the car)	22	.2	2
The omission of 's to indicate possession the father reaction			
The past of the verb used after *to:* He wants to *laughed*. (laugh)	22	.2	2
The present perfect or past used instead of the past perfect: She told me she wouldn't smoke because she *has* found. (had)	22	.2	2
The simple present or past instead of the past continuous: I was down; everything *went* wrong. (was going)	22	.2	2
Make used instead of *do*: What kind of work *make* the social worker? (does the social worker do?)	22	.2	2
Errors with irregular plurals: two or three *mans*. (men)	22	.2	2

	Rank	% of error	Number out of 1000 errors
A comparative used instead of a superlative: The *harder* was to begin. (hardest)	22	.2	2
Many used with uncountables: I have *many* experiences about the job. (much experience)	22	.2	2
Less used with countables: They had less problems. (fewer)	22	.2	2
Much used with countables: Too *much* things. (many)	22	.2	2
The wrong structure used instead of *make* and *have:* It permits to *do laughing* people. (to make people laugh)	22	.2	2
Use of the incorrect structure after *show, know, learn, teach:* You can know *to speak* English. (how to)	22	.2	2
Will followed by the past or past participle: She won't *eaten* you. (eat)	22	.2	2
The indicative used instead of the subjunctive: If I *was* their child. (were)	22	.2	2
Not used instead of *no*: There is *not* male heir. (no)	22	.2	2
Wrong word used after *different:* Different *than* Ann. (from)	22	.2	2
Choosen used instead of *chosen:* I would have *choosen.* (chosen)	22	.2	2

	Rank	% of error	Number out of 1000 errors
Loose used instead of *lose: Loose* his time. (lose)	22	.2	2
Thing used instead of *think*: Even I *thing* that. (think)	22	.2	2
Past used instead of *pass*: The rest of my holidays *past* in skiing (passed)	22	.2	2
Lay used instead of *lie*: The poor guy *laying* on the table. (lying)	22	.2	2
Live used instead of *leave*: They will *live* tomorrow. (leave)	22	.2	2
Has used instead of *as:* I feel *has* I have fever. (as if)	22	.2	2
You're used instead of *your:* What you're problem? (your)	22	.2	2
To used instead of *too:* I'm *to* lazy. (too)	22	.2	2
Traduction used instead of *translation:* The *traduction* is good. (translation)	22	.2	2
Sympatic used instead of *sympathetic:* To be sympatic. (sympathetic)	22	.2	2
Informations used instead of *information:* I have some *informations*. (information)	22	.2	2
Arrive used instead of *happen* with events: It *arrives* often that... (It often happens)	22	.2	2

	Rank	% of error	Number out of 1000 errors
Instruct used instead of *educate:* He wouldn't give good *instruction* to his pupils. (education)	22	.2	2
Remorses used instead of *remorse:* Full of *remorses*. (remorse)	22	.2	2
Other prepositions used instead of *with:* He seems familiar *at* an operation. (with)	22	.2	2
Other prepositions used instead of *by*: An object followed *to* a verb. (by)	22	.2	2

RANK-ORDERED LIST
OF THE ERRORS OF THE
BOTTOM GROUP (101-201)

	Rank	% of error	Number out of 4000 errors
Omission of the s-morpheme on the third person singular, present tense: Father *decide*. (decides)	1	5.47	219
The use of the stem or past instead of the past participle: He will be *operate*. (operated)	2	4.17	167
Erroneous use of the definite article. *The* cancer. (0)	3	3.9	159
Other preposition used instead of *to*. Listening friends. (listening *to*)	4	2.42	97
Omission of the definite article: In front of hall. (in front of *the* hall)	5	2.27	91
Other preposition used instead of 0-preposition: Ask *at* friends. (ask friends)	6	2.22	89
Be used for *have*: My daughter *is* a temperature. (has)	7	2.2	88
Wrong form used after a verb of volition: He wanted *that Gale recover*. (Gale *to recover*)	8	2.0	80
Other prepositions used instead *in*: Verbs *at* the third person singular. *(in)*	9	1.92	77

	Rank	% of error	Number out of 4000 errors
Omission of the indefinite article: Before proper noun. (before *a*)	10	1.27	51
Have used instead of *has*: She *have* a big dog. *(has)*	10	1.27	51
For used instead of *to*: A letter *for* scare you. *(to)*	11	1.22	49
Have used for *be*: You *have* 19. (are)	11	1.22	49
Omission of *be*: He neatly dressed. He *is* neatly dressed.	12	1.15	46
The active voice used instead of the passive: When it *modifies*. (it *is* modified)	13	1.12	45
The singular used instead of the plural: In all the *classroom*. (classrooms)	14	1.1	44
Omission of a modal auxiliary: Why the baby cries? (Why *does* the baby cry?)	15	1.07	43
Wrong form of the pronoun - it does not agree with the antecedent: Put it the crackers on the table.	16	1.05	42
Other prepositions used instead of *at*: I work *to* a big camp. *(at)*	17	1.02	41
Other prepositions used instead of *of*: He thought *to* you. (of)	17	1.02	41
Do used instead of *does*: *Do* he live? (Does)	17	1.	40

	Rank	% of error	Number out of 4000 errors
S added to the adjective: Blonds hair. (blond)	18	1.	40
Wrong order for questions: How old Peter was? (How old was Peter?)	18	1.	40
The present used instead of the future: *I buy* this dress. (I'll buy)	19	.97	39
Fem. or masc. gender given to thing. She a house has 4 bedroom.	19	.97	39
The noun preceding the adjective: The speech indirect. (indirect speech)	20	.95	38
The present used instead of the past: After his father do he went to Toronto.	20	.95	38
Questions having the answer in the wrong tense: How did they get the ball? They *get* the ball... (They got...)	20	.95	38
Have used instead of *be* with expletives: He *has* four bedrooms. (are)	22	.85	34
The interrogative rendered by: *Is that* or a double *is* (est-ce que): Is that your mother drives? (Does your mother drive?)	23	.82	33
Say used instead of *tell*: What must I *say* her? (tell)	24	.8	32
The past used with *did*: What did Dr. B *said?* (say)	25	.75	30

	Rank	% of error	Number out of 4000 errors
A plural used instead of a singular: A *views*. (view)	26	.7	28
The mixing of tenses in the same or neighbouring sentences: I jumped out of bed; *that's* too late. (was)	26	.7	28
The simple present tense used instead of the continuous: (Where are you going?) I go to Miami.	26	.7	28
The incorrect use or omission of *would*: What *was* Judy like to see? (would)	26	.7	28
An adjective that agrees with the thing possessed in French rather than the possessor: *His* husband. (her)	27	.65	26
The omission of *'s* to indicate possession: The *butler* version. (butler's)	27	.65	26
A singular used instead of a plural with expletives: There *is* more boys; Here *is* some apples. (are)	27	.65	26
A possessive agreeing neither with the possessor or the thing possessed: Mary comes to *his* room. (her)	28	.62	25
The use of *do, does* or *did* when not required: *Does* the journey more pleasant? (Was)	29	.6	24
Than used instead of *that*: He knows *that* Kino wants to succeed. (that)	29	.6	24

	Rank	% of error	Number out of 4000 errors
The infinitive or gerund used after *come* and go: Go *to* put it. (Go and put)	29	.6	24
The use of the present or past continuous tense instead of the simple present or past: *Is he loving* pop music? (Does he love)	30	.62	22
Other prepositions used instead of *on*. I sit *to* the other side. (on)	30	.55	22
The article used with a possessive proper noun: *The* Mary's books. (Ø)	30	.55	22
The wrong conjunction used after *same*: The same work *than* us. (as)	30	.55	22
Are used for *is*. The adverb of time *are* placed ... (is)	31	.52	21
A used instead of *an*: *A* old boat. *(An)*	31	.52	21
The future or other tense used instead of the conditional: Dr. Riley answered he *will* come. (would)	32	.5	20
It used to render the expletive: *there*: *It* misses... There is... (missing)	32	.5	20
S + V + Adv. instead of S + Adv. + V: Lane plays *always*. (Lane always plays)	32	.5	20
Can followed by *to + stem*: He can to use them.	33	.47	19
The past used with *did*: What did he discovered?	33	.47	19

	Rank	% of error	Number out of 4000 errors
Wrong form of the future or the infinitive with *can*: You will *can* go. (be able to)	33	.47	19
The present perfect used instead of the simple past: The students have liked their visit last week.	33	.47	19
The passive used instead of the active voice: She *is told* my daughter. (told)	34	.45	18
A possessive pronoun used instead of a possessive adjective: *Theirs* hands. (their)	34	.45	18
The present perfect used instead of the simple past: My brother *has fallen* last night. (fell)	34	.45	18
The past of the verb used after *to*: He has to *studied.* (study)	34	.45	18
Were used instead of *was*: She *were* so beautiful. (was)	35	.42	14
Was used instead of *were*: They *was* gone. (were)	35	.42	22
Who used with a thing as antecedent: An action *who* isn't right. (which)	35	.42	17
Make used instead of *do*: When an action is *made.* (done)	36	.37	15
Translation from the French relexive: He was proud of *him.* (himself)	37	.35	14
An infinitive used instead of a gerund with the verbs: stop, continue, finish: He finished *to buy*. (buying)	37	.35	14

	Rank	% of error	Number out of 4000 errors
Do, does, did used instead of *not to:* I advise you *to don't* think. (not to)	37	.35	14
's added to the name of a thing: The *sentence's* meaning. (The meaning of the sentence)	38	.32	13
Possessor and thing possessed inverted: Birthday's Ann. (Ann's birthday)	38	.32	13
S-morpheme used on other persons than the their person singular, present tense: You *looks* pretty. (look)	38	.32	13
Is used instead of *his:* He knows *is* talent. (his)	38	.32	13
One used instead of *a:* We use *one s*. (an)	38	.32	13
The present used instead of the past in a subordinate clause: The doctor said I *can* play. (could)	39	.3	12
The s-morpheme used on the stem after *do, does, did:* Does he *likes?* (like)	39	.3	12
For to used in front of the stem: He went *for to* ask him. (He went to ask him)	40	.27	11
The simple present, the past, or other tense instead of the past progressive: He went outside and *it rained.* (was raining)	40	.27	11
His used instead of *is: His* he right? (Is)	40	.27	11

	Rank	% of error	Number out of 4000 errors
Fell used instead of *feel:* How do you fell? (feel)	40	.27	11
A possessive adjective instead of a possessive pronoun: A cat like *your*. (yours)	40	.27	11
Other prepositions used instead of *from:* imported *to* Italy. (from)	40	.27	11
S + V + Adv. + O instead of S + V + O + Adv.: I like *very much* hockey. (I like hockey very much)	41	.25	10
Omission of the indefinite article with exclamations in the singular: What nice puppy! (What a)	41	.25	10
The use of the past with *do, does:* They don't *liked*. (like)	42	.22	9
Experience used instead of *experiment:* What's the result of the *experience* (chemistry)? (experiment)	42	.22	9
A possessive pronoun used instead of a possessive adjective: *Yours* friend. (your)	42	.22	9
Miscellaneous errors with questions: What's you Mary? (Is that you)	42	.22	9
People used in the plural: Why do so many *peoples* take... (people)	43	.20	8

	Rank	% of error	Number out of 4000 errors
The wrong case of the pronoun: What's wrong with *he?* (him)	43	.20	8
Has used instead of *have:* You *has* temperature. (have)	43	.20	8
The past participle used alone instead of the present or past: They *seen* each other. (saw)	43	.20	8
Die used instead of *dead:* He found Mr. G *died* on the floor. (dead)	43	.20	8
Dead used instead of *die:* He will *dead.* (die)	43	.20	8
The use of the past participle instead of the past or present perfect (Arthur *gone* to the funeral. (went)	43	.20	8
A comparative used instead of a superlative: Her *better* friend. (best)	43	.17	7
A personal pronoun used instead of a possessive adjective: That's *us* teachers' room. (our)	43	.17	7
An used instead of a: *An* hose. (A)	43	.17	7
A possessive adjective used instead of a personal pronoun: Is that *your?* (you)	43	.17	7
Is used instead of *are*: What *is* the functions of the pancreas? (are)	43	.17	7
Whose rendered erroneously: A girl *that* her name is... (whose)	43	.17	7

	Rank	% of error	Number out of 4000 errors
Incorrect structure after *know, show, learn, teach:* Show me *to play* tennis. (how to play)	43	.17	7
Can followed by stem s-morpheme: She can *meets* you. (meet)	43	.17	7
The conditional used instead of the subjunctive: If it *would be* a boy. (it were)	43	.17	7
Miscellaneous errors of structure: I was sure she would discuss *for that she accepted.* (so that she might accept)	43	.17	7
S + V + Ind. O + O instead of S + V + O + Ind. O: Helen kikes in Barbara's room the pictures. (likes the pictures in Barbar's room)	43	.17	7
He used instead of *there* with expletives: When *he* is more snow. (there)	43	.17	7
Think used instead of *thing*: It's the best *think*. (thing)	43	.17	7
Loose used instead of *lose*: Did they loose the ball? (lose)	43	.17	7
Hairs used instead of *hair*: Because the *hairs* are not calculated. (hair)	43	.17	7
Other preposition used instead of *for:* He left *from* Quebec. (for)	43	.17	7
Other prepositions used instead of *by:* An object followed *to* a verb... (by)	43	.17	7

	Rank	% of error	Number out of 4000 errors
The past used instead of the present: We always *employed* a gerund. (employ (use))	43	.15	6
Everybody used with a plural: Everybody *like* a holiday. (likes)	43	.15	6
Must accompanied by *would, should will:* The Government *will* must negotiate. (must)	43	.15	6
Thing used instead of *think:* He *things* that he will come. (thinks)	43	.15	6
And used instead of *an:* Add *and s*. (an)	43	.15	6
Were used instead of *where:* They know *were* B. lives. (where)	43	.15	6
Need of instead of need 0: You haven't need of anything? (You don't need anything?)	43	.15	6
Become used instead of *come back:* I *become*. (I'll come back)	43	.15	6
A singular used instead of a plural when many persons own one object: They must keep their *job*. (jobs)	44	.12	5
Self-confidence used instead of self-confident: He is *self-confidence*. (self-confident)	44	.12	5
A possessive used instead of an noun taken as an adjective: A *baseball's* bat. (baseball)	44	.12	5
An adverb used instead of an adjective: It's *normally*. (normal)	44	.12	5

	Rank	% of error	Number out of 4000 errors
A noun used instead of an adjective: Your *news* coat. (new)	44	.12	5
Which used instead of *who:* A person *which* works. (who)	44	.12	5
Which rendered erroneously: A film *what* is made. (which)	44	.12	5
For + gerund instead of to + stem: They work *for saving* money. (to save)	44	.12	5
The present perfect used instead of the past perfect in the subordinate: He believed what she *has* been saying. (had)	44	.12	5
The present participle used with *do, does:* Does she singing?	44	.12	5
The past used instead of the present: Spring *began.* (begins)	44	.12	5
S-morpheme used on the past: She *wrotes.* (wrote)	44	.12	5
Can followed by the stem + *ed:* She can *proved.*	44	.12	5
The absence of negation with *can:* You *can* imagine. (can't)	44	.12	5
Must + stem + s-morpheme: He must *eats.* (eat)	44	.12	5
Incorrect use of the past of must: That day I *must* finish early. (had to)	44	.12	5

	Rank	% of error	Number out of 4000 errors
The indicative used instead of the subjunctive: If I *was* in your place. (were)	44	.12	5
Would and *might* followed by to + stem: She would rather *to see.* ((0) see)	44	.12	5
The indefinite article used with a plural exclamation: What a lovely kittens! (What lovely ...)	44	.12	5
Tell used instead of *say:* The jury *told* that H. was guilty. (said)	44	.12	5
Let used instead of *leave:* *Let* those friends. (Leave)	44	.12	5
Dead used instead of *death:* The *dead* of his father... (death)	44	.12	5
Its used instead of *it's:* *Its* upstairs. (It's)	44	.12	5
No used instead of *know:* I don't *no.* (know)	44	.12	5
A singular used with *people:* People *likes* and *thinks.* (like and think)	45	.10	4
Errors with the comparative of equality: I'm as *smaller* as John. (small)	45	.10	4
Adjective and noun inverted: *juice fruit.* (fruit juice)	45	.10	4
This used instead of *these:* *This* stamps. (these)	45	.10	4

	Rank	% of error	Number out of 4000 errors
A used instead of *one:* *A* day, he was sick. (one)	45	.10	4
No used instead of *do not:* A title *not* take capitals. (*do not* take)	45	.10	4
The present or past tense used instead of the present perfect or present perfect continuous: There *were* many changes. (have been)	45	.10	4
Will + past or past participle: He will *came*. (come)	45	.10	4
Will + Stem + s-morpheme: He will *comes*. (come)	45	.10	4
Must followed by *to:* They must to stop. (must stop)	45	.10	4
Must followed by the past or past participle: He must *forgot*. (forget)	45	.10	4
A singular used after *one of:* One of the principal *object*. (objects)	45	.10	4
No used instead of *not:* You're *no* smart. (not)	45	.10	4
Would and *should* followed by a past or past participle: He should *had* desired. (have)	45	.10	4
An adjective used instead of an adverb: It wasn't attached very *strong*. (strongly)	45	.10	4
What's used instead of *what:* What's you need. (what)	45	.10	4

	Rank	% of error	Number out of 4000 errors
As used instead of *has:* She *as* lost. (has)	45	.10	4
Has used instead of *as:* His career has a writer. (as)	45	.10	4
Rest used instead of stay or remain: He *rests* with his family. (stays)	45	.10	4
Other prepositions used instead of *with:* He filled the hole *by* water. (with)	45	.10	4
Errors with irregular plurals: Her two *foots.* (feet)	46	.07	3
An apostrophe used where none is required: *Miguel's* is the possessor. (Miguel is)	46	.07	3
A superlative used instead of a comparative: My brother is *smallest* than me. (smaller)	46	.07	3
Much used with countables: Too *much* things. (many)	46	.07	3
An *s* added to a noun taken as an adjective: A ten-*years* old girl. (year)	46	.07	3
Of which rendered erroneously: The car *who* he dreamed. (of which)	46	.07	3
Absence of the relative pronoun: A noun *is modified* takes no capitals. (which is)	46	.06	3
One another used instead of *each other:* If we help *one another,* both of us will benefit. (each other)	46	.06	3

	Rank	% of error	Number out of 4000 errors
The wrong structure used after *make* or *have:* A book which makes us *to live*. (makes us live)	46	.06	3
Can followed by the present patticiple: You can *bringing*. (bring)	46	.06	3
Will used with the present participle: Will you *looking?* (look)	46	.06	3
Miscellaneous errors with *will:* What *did he will learn?* (What will he learn?)	46	.06	3
Must followed by the present participle: I must *going*. (go)	46	.06	3
Wrong modal to express strong obligation: He *may* finish. (must)	46	.06	3
What used instead of *when: What* are you going, Helen? (when)	46	.06	3
What used instead of *where: What* do you live? (where)	46	.06	3
What used instead of *that:* I thought *what* it was a fracture. (that)	46	.06	3
That used instead of *what: That* I need is... (what)	46	.06	3
Of used instead of *than:* I'm less sure *of* you. (than)	46	.06	3
S + Adv. + V instead of S + V + Adv.: Mary C. *much worked*. (worked much)	46	.06	3

	Rank	% of error	Number out of 4000 errors
The use of the incorrect exclamatory word: *Whom* a big envelope! (What)	46	.06	3
They used instead of *there:* *They didn't have* any stars. (There weren't)	46	.06	3
Raise used instead of *rise:* The ball raises to the top. (rises)	46	.06	3
There used instead of *their:* Keep *there* jobs. (their)	46	.06	3
Their used instead of *there:* How many rooms are *their?* (there)	46	.06	3
Occupy used instead of *look after:* He *doesn't occupy* his son. (doesn't look after)	46	.06	3
Vacancy used instead of *holidays:* Everybody likes *vacancy.* (holidays)	46	.06	3
Many times used instead of *often:* How *many times* do you go there? (often)	46	.06	3
Double comparatives: John is *more* taller. ((0) taller)	47	.05	2
An indefinite article used instead of a definite article with a superlative: He is *a* smallest in town. (the)	47	.05	2
A superlative used instead of a positive: What a *largest* envelope! (large)	47	.05	2

	Rank	% of error	Number out of 4000 errors
Succeed used instead of *success:* It wouldn't be a *succeed.* (success)	47	.05	2
One's used instead of a possessive adjective: She claps *one's* hands. (her)	47	.05	2
Many used with uncountables: You must do *many* exercise. (much)	47	.05	2
Learn used instead of *teach:* He wants to *learn* the dolphins how to speak. (teach)	47	.05	2
Few used with uncountables: A *few* time. (short)	47	.05	2
An *s* added to the plural of a personal pronoun: They like *thems.* (them)	47	.05	2
The personal pronoun used instead of the possessive pronoun: The same as *us.* (ours)	47	.05	2
Whom rendered erroneously: A man *who* you can trust. (whom)	47	.05	2
S-morpheme added to the infinitive: He needs to *takes.* (take)	47	.05	2
For + stem + *s*-morpheme: You walk for *looks.* (to look)	47	.05	2
The wrong structure used instead of *make* and *have:* She *laught me* all the time. (She made me laugh)	47	.05	2
The wrong structure used with *hope:* He hopes he *has become.* (hpes he becomes)	47	.05	2

	Rank	% of error	Number out of 4000 errors
The present used instead of the past: B. says that the coach *was* deaf. (is)	47	.05	2
Other tenses used instead of the past or future progressive: They went outside and it *rained.* (was raining)	47	.05	2
Does used instead of *do: Does* the exams bother you? (Do)	47	.05	2
The wrong structure used instead of the second person imperative: *Let's* me drive. (Let)	47	.05	2
Do you used as an imperative of the second person: *Do you turn* right. (Turn right)	47	.05	2
Will used as main verb: When will I better? (When will I be)	47	.05	2
Confusion in the use of must and should: He *should* work hard; he has no choice. (must)	47	.05	2
Would, should or *may* followed by stem + s-morpheme: You should *cuts.* (cut)	47	.05	2
The use of *would* or *could* instead of *should:* The girl *would* be followed. (should)	47	.05	2
Would or *should* followed by a present participle: What would Judy *seeing?* (see)	47	.05	2
Omission of *than:* It brings him more money a mechanic. (more money than a mechanic)	47	.05	2

	Rank	% of error	Number out of 4000 errors
S + O + V instead of S + V + O: He didn't her believe. (He didn't believe her)	47	.05	2
S + let + V + O + Ind. O instead of S + let + O + Ind. O: Don't let *marry her sister with K.* (Don't let her sister marry K)	47	.05	2
The affirmative tag word used instead of the negative: You have four daughters *do you have?* (don't you?)	47	.05	2
The incorrect form of the verb with an exclamation: What a lovely skirt *do you have!* (you have!)	47	.05	2
Past used instead of *pass:* They have to past. (pass)	47	.05	2
Feel used instead of *fell:* Since I *feel* in the stairs. (fell)	47	.05	2
Leave instead of *live:* Jack *leaves* in Quebec. (lives)	47	.05	2
Live used instead of leave: When are we *living?* (leaving)	47	.05	2
Your used instead of you're: You must forget *your* shy. (you're)	47	.05	2
Where used instead of *were:* In what way *where* B. and S. different? (were)	47	.05	2
To used instead of *too:* She's *to* lazy. (too)	47	.05	2

	Rank	% of error	Number out of 4000 errors
They're used instead of *their:* The trees were beautiful with *they're* gold leaves. (their)	47	.05	2
Piece used instead of *room:* The house has four *pieces.* (rooms)	47	.05	2
Accord used instead of *agree:* I didn't *accord* the verb. (I didn't make the verb agree)	47	.05	2
Arrive used instead of *happen:* That often *arrives* to her. (happens)	47	.05	2
Defend used instead of *forbid:* She *defends* her children to go out. (forbids)	47	.05	2
Keep used instead of *stay:* You must *keep* the bed. (stay in bed)	47	.05	2
Hour used instead of *time:* The real *hour.* (time)	47	.05	2
Examen used instead of *exams:* My *examens* were good. (exams)	47	.05	2
In life used instead of *alive:* They make prayers to stay *in life.* (alive)	47	.05	2
Present used instead of *introduce:* They *present* him to another girl. (introduce)	47	.05	2
Person used instead of *nobody, anybody:* She able to love *person.* (anybody)	47	.05	2
Serve of used instead of *use:* How many did they *serve of* dogs? (How many dogs did they use?)	47	.05	2

	Rank	% of error	Number out of 4000 errors
A time used instead of *once: A time* he came. (once)	47	.05	2
Other prepositions used instead of *during: At one* one of their trips. (during)	47	.05	2
Bowel used instead of hose: He got the ball out by a *bowel.* (hose)	47	.05	2

Discussion on the Rank-Ordered List of the Errors of All of the Groups

On perusing this rank-ordered list of the errors of the college students of all levels, one may wonder why certain items should rank so high while others should prove to be relatively easy. The discussion which follows will endeavour to explain this discrepancy.

Before persuing, however, we would like to forestall the objection that will not fail to arise: "Certain errors rank higher because their frequency is greater." As mentioned elsewhere in this research, frequency must certainly be taken into account, but the difficulty of the item takes on greater importance still. Some items are frequent - take, for example, conjuctions of coordination - yet not many errors of this type are found in our lists. Frequency does not necessarily equate difficulty, but when both are conjugated, that is when errors multiply. In our discussion of the rank-ordered list of the errors of all groups and the others as well, we shall consider only the cases of ranks one to twenty. Beyond rank 20, the probability of error is merely 1% and therefore possibly ascribable to chance.

The errors of rank order (from henceforth RO) 1, 16, 17:

	Rank	% of Error	Number out of 5000
Omission of the *s*-morpheme on the third person singular, present tense: Father *decide*. (decides)	1	7.3	365
have used instead of *has*: She *have* a big dog. (has)	16	1.08	54
Do used instead of *does*: *Do* he live here? (Does)	17	1.02	51

reveal the potency of overgeneralization due to habit formation. As all the other persons of these verbs are regular, the students are caught in the ritornello of these verbs and remain oblivious of the variation of the third person singular which constitutes a major difficulty for them. In the case of RO number 1, as all the action verbs and verbs of state add up to greater numbers than *do* and *have*, they finally total an imposing number.

	Rank	% of Error	Number
Erroneous use of the definite article: *The* cancer (∅)	2	4.38	219

The great number of errors of RO 2 have a twofold explanation. First, the frequency of the article in English and then the persistant intrusion of interference from French where the article is used still more frequently than in English: with abstract nouns, names of diseases, sports, lakes - and the list could be extended.

	Rank	% of Error	Number
The stem used instead of the past participle: He will be *operate*. (operated)	3	4.	219

Interference seems to play no part in the errors of RO 3 unless it be phonologically because the *d* or *ed* might not have been heard or pronounced, but this would not apply to the numerous irregular verbs. It seems, then, that it is because of the inherent difficulty of the construction. It requires quite an amount of intellectual gymnastics for the students to recall that the verb *be* is required to form a passive - and to put it in the correct person - and then to add a second verb and that in the more unfamiliar past participle form. Proof of this difficulty is that in error RO 19:

	Rank	% of Error	Number
The active voice used instead of the passive: When it *modifies*. (it is modified)	19	.98	49

The students substituted the easier active voice according to the law of least effort, instead of the passive. Further proof is that teachers of French also complain that their students do not make their past participles vary.

Of major difficulty in many languages are prepositions. English is no exception to the rule as may be inferred from the numerous errors of RO numbers 4, 6, 12:

	Rank	% of Error	Number
Other prepositions used instead of *to*: Listening friends (listening to friends)	4	3.2	160
Other prepositions used instead of 0-preposition: Ask *at* friends. (0)	6	2.14	107
Other prepositions used instead of *of*: He thought *to* you. (of)	12	1.24	62

most of which can be accounted for by interference from French verbs which govern different prepositions. Thus, in RO number 4, errors accumulated because of the specific problem of verbs of movement which are erroneously translated by *at* (à): *Going *at* school (to)", *Leading the way *at* the cave (to)" and other frequent verbs like *listen*. The errors of RO 6 related to the frequency of verbs like *ask*, *please*, *tell*, that govern prepositions in French as well as certain prepositions like *near*, nouns of time like *Last May* and finally to parsing: *third person, singular* (La troisième personne *du* singulier.) For RO 12, the verb *think* is responsible for many errors.

Teachers with a number of years of experience will not be surprised to see the accumulation of errors with verbs of volition:

	Rank	% of Error	Number
Errors with verbs of volition: He wanted *that Gales recover*. (Gale to recover)	7	2.1	105

In spite of prolonged insistence, explanations and repeated drillings, students - even excellent students - persist in making errors with this complex structure. They find it difficult because there is nothing comparable to it in French although there is in Latin. Had they learned the infinitive construction in Latin, they would have been broken into different structures. Such is not the case, however, as most of them have no experience of Latin, as a matter of fact, of no foreign languages and as a result have been confined to the routine of their own mother tongue.

On first thought we would expect RO 9 and 10:

	Rank	% of Error	Number
Be used instead of *have*: When the professor *was* arrived. (had)	9	1.68	84
Have used instead of *be*: You *have* 19. (are)	10	1.36	68

to be inverted because of the number of sentences concerning age: *How old are you?* as well as a few expressions in which the verb *have* is used in English: *You're* right, *She's* hungry. But on examining the errors, we realized that the number of verbs *be* used instead of *have* are still more numerous because the verbs of movement are conjugated with *be* in French but with *have* in English. Such are, for example, *arrive, enter, come, return:* *She *is* returned (has) home, (Elle *est* retournée chez elle.)

The errors of RO 15 and 18:

	Rank	% of Error	Number
For used instead of *to* in front of an infinitive: A letter *for* scare you (to)	15	1.1	55
s-morpheme used on an adjective: Her *blonds* hair (blond)	18	1.0	50

may be traced to French also. In the second case, it is rather evident that the error was made because of negative transfer of the addition of *s*-morpheme on adjectives, and in the first case, by the confusion of *pour* in French which indicates purpose in front of an infinitive: Je suis allé à Toronto *pour* voir l'opéra La Traviata, and *pour* used for attribution: Ceci est *pour* ta mère. The students were not able to discriminate between the two and used *for* as the equivalent of *pour* in front of a verb.

The explanation of the error of RO 20:

	Rank	% of Error	Number
The wrong tense used in the answer: How did they get the ball? Answer: They *get* ...(got)	20	2.66	133

seems quite clear-cut. As the stem of the verb is used with the modal auxiliary *do, does, did,* the students simply parroted the last verb they saw and used it when a past would have been required.

It was relatively easy to account for the difficulty revealed in the errors of the preceding section, but why so many errors should crop up in RO numbers, 5, 8, 11, 13, 14, 18:

	Rank	% of Error	Number
Omission of the definite article: In front *of hall* (of the hall)	5	2.66	133
Other prepositions used instead of *at*: I work *to* a big camp. (at)	8	2.06	103
Omission of the indefinite article: The love *of* mother. (love of a mother)	11	1.32	66
Omission of verb *be*: He *neatly* dressed. (he is)	13	1.22	61
The use of the present instead of the past: After his father *die* he went to Toronto. (died)	14	1.2	57
Omission of the *s*-morpheme on the plural: In all the *classroom* (classrooms)	18	1.0	50

poses some serious problems which we shall now try to solve.

Interference does not seem to be responsible for these errors, as in each of the cases either the article, the verb or the correct tense would be used in French. We must look elsewhere for the explanation. In numbers 5 and 11, the error may be ascribable in part to transfer of training, as the teacher had often stormed against the incorrect use of the article and had explained repeatedly that abstract nouns do not take articles unless they are modified. One of the examples she proposed was: "Love is a great thing, _but "The_ love of a mother is extraordinary". In some cases (as in RO 5) the students mistook the noun for an abstract noun or did not notice that the abstract noun was modified. In other numerous cases on our lists, the rule stipulating that nouns used in general do not take an article: "Dogs are faithful", for example, was overgeneralized to include singular nouns leading to such errors as: *_They work very hard to buy house._ (a house). Overgeneralization of the zero-article is also evident in other errors, such as in the compound names of countries, names of rivers (names of lakes take no article in English), names of substances that have already been mentioned in the context: *_They filled the hole with water; with water the ball rose to the top._* (with the water), and finally with some adjectives taken as nouns: *"He maintains relations _with_ public (with the public), from "public school", public parks." Other omissions of the article however, are unexplicable, such as: *_In front of house_ (of the house).

The error of RO 8 may also stem from transfer of training as the teacher had also insisted on the use of the preposition _to_ instead of _at_ with verbs of movement, to counteract the numerous _at's_ found in their work: *_He's going at the hockey game._* (to). The verb _look_ governing the preposition _at_ in English and none in French, is also responsible for part of the errors.

The errors of RO 13 and 14 are very difficult to explain. As tentative reasons, we could suggest that in RO 13, the students did not hear the auxiliary verb _is_ as it was pronounced in the oral part of the lesson, or again it could be that because of strategy of communication, they did not consider it important to add any but message-bearing words. In number 14, the students possibly looked up the English word in the dictionary, found the stem and wrote it down as such.

The last error that we shall discuss here is RO 18, a strange error, for the use of _s's_ is very common in French, more so than in English as even adjectives vary in the plural. The only explanation we could suggest is that as _s's_ are not pronounced in French, the students wrote the word as they heard it mentally even though they were doing written work and had heard it correctly a number of times in their audio-visual lessons.

As we have seen in this RO list of the errors of the students of all levels, the difficulty of certain items is more obvious for some than for others. All of which goes to prove that what constitutes difficulty is rather unpredictible and requires closer study. We shall further delve the problem of difficulty by comparing the RO list of the lowest level (101-201) with that of the highest (901-902).

The discussion of these two lists will comprise two parts: the comparison of the errors of the 101-201 (henceforth Group A) and 901-902 (henceforth Group B) RO lists from ranks 1 to 15 and then certain consideration on the persistence or disappearance of certain errors in

Group B. It must be noted before beginning, however, that one must not be misled either by the number of errors in Group A or by the RO of the items of the Group B. On one hand the students were four times as numerous in Group A (112 as compared to 26), and on the other hand, as the types of errors in Group B were less considerable (47 as compared to 22) the RO's were maintained relatively high till the time they dwindled down to the presence of two errors in the whole corpus. To counter the discrepancy in the number of errors, only the percentage of errors in both groups will be considered.

As first step in our study of the errors of these two groups, we shall discuss the specific items that have not been learned in the 901-902 group, those that have been learned and the different errors that have cropped up during the two years of college training. Possible explanations for this situation will be added.

As already mentioned in the discussion of the errors in the RO list of all the groups, some structures present are particular stumbling blocks for Francophone learners because of strong negative transfer influence, because of their inherent complexity, because of the students' instinctive tendency to overgeneralize and because of transfer of training, and because of unknown reasons. With regards to negative transfer, such are: the use of the article, the use of *s's* on adjectives, of the erroneous use of the prepositions *to, at, in* and the zero-preposition; to inherent complexity: errors in the use of the past participle and of verbs of volition; to overgeneralization: the omission of the s-morpheme on the third person singular, present tense, *have* used instead of *has*, *do* instead of *does*; and finally to transfer of training and unknown reasons, the omission of the definite or indefinite articles. It seems then that these tendencies are so fossilized, that it is very difficult to eradicate them.

Explanations for some of the persistent errors and the errors that have increased - that is, have been demoted to a higher rank of frequency - may be suggested. One of these would be for the higher RO of question-structures (RO 18: (Group A); 6: (Group B) a structure which should have been mastered after two years of college. As the teacher knew that question-structures are still pitfalls for the students, she gave them a great number of questions to compose about films seen in class or conversations about specific problems. That year she did not explain or drill the question-structures with the result that errors on question-structures accumulated. In her Group A, however, with the help of an audio-visual method, she graded, illustrated and drilled the structures. The same explanation may apply to the relatively high rank of the present progressive instead of the simple present (RO 15 for Group B and 30 for Group A). Here again, not much attention was given to this structure in 901 as the teacher took it for granted that the students knew the difference in use between the two, whereas in Group A, once more with the help of an audio-visual method, she drilled, explained and illustrated the structure.

A high RO for *s's* on adjectives is still noted in Group B as compared to Group A: (RO 12: Groupe B) and 18: Group A. Here is a tentative explanation. When the students arrive at the college where the research was done, their knowledge of written French is inadequate: they do not make their adjectives or past participles agree and they even neglect to add *s's* to plural nouns. The whole teaching body endeavours to correct them with a battery of arguments and penalties - milder penalties for other subjects than French - but consistently enforced. Would the students' trepid eagerness to make adjectives agree be transferred to English? This is what we are suggesting here.

Another error that is surprisingly more frequent in Group B than in Group A is word order (RO 15 for Group B and 32 for Group A). Two possible explanations could be offered for this increase. The first is that in Group A the structure was amply drilled because the audio-visual method they used included the dialogue: "I know Hampstead well" which was repeated a number of times; translations were also given on the structure: "Il connaît *bien* ton père, Elle aime *beaucoup* la musique." Perhaps in the long run the fruit of all these efforts showed up in the correct use of the structure in Group A. The second reason could be that the nature of the assignments Group B was given, called for greater use of adverbs of this type of structure.

With this second explanation, we have touched upon a vital point which should account for the persistence and even the increase of certain errors in Group B. While Group A students were generally given questions to answer on articles they read in the magazine they had a subscription to, and translations from French to English based on the structures they learned in their audio-visual method to test their comprehension and to oblige them to read, Group B students were given essays to do, either of the narrative, descriptive or expository types, friendly or business letters to write and speeches to compose for different occasions. All of which was meant to train them to express their ideas clearly and to acquire fluent style, as reading was no longer a problem for them. This necessarily entailed the frequent use of structures not within the scope and complexity of the 101-201 group and which were not even mentioned to them. Examples of these could be: *same* followed by the incorrect conjunction (RO 12: Group B; 30: Group A) used in expository writing: "Her intention wasn't the same *that* her friend's (as)"; *one of* followed by a singular noun (RO 12: Group B; 45: Group A) in narratives or letters: "One of my *friend* invited me. (friends); *say* used instead of *tell* (RO 15: Group B; 26: Group A) in letters: "I will *say* you about my trip to Europe (tell);" the past used instead of the present perfect (RO 15: Group B; 45: Group A) in speeches to introduce an artist: "He *went* touring in Europe a number of times"; the future instead of the conditional (RO 12: Group B; 32: Group A) in narratives or letters: "Daddy said he *will* send me to New York to study. (would)"; the conditional used instead of the subjunctive (RO 18: Group B; 43: Group A) in expository work: "We would test this result if we *would have* the data (had) and finally the typical stumbling block, present perfect used instead of the simple past (RO 14: Group B and 14: Group A) in narratives, letters and speeches to introduce artists: "Last Year he *has written* many poems (wrote).

Two errors that rank high in the Group B that cannot be justified are the errors of rank 5 and 11; the omission of the definite article and the use of the present instead of the simple past. It seems that at this advanced level, the students, in spite of their tendency to hypercorrection, in spite of the teacher's insistence on the omission of the article with abstract nouns and in spite of the presence of the stem of the dictionary when they look up the word - as a matter of fact, most of the words they had to use in the past were words they already knew, such as *say, ask, die, promise, know* - it seems then, that these very elementary errors should have been mastered by then. Why they were not, remains a mystery.

Other errors, however, have been mastered, having disappeared completely, and others have decreased in frequency. Let us examine a few of these. An awkward error that has diminished is the adjective that agrees with the gender of the thing possessed as in French rather than with the possessor - *his husband*, for example. In Group B the percentage of errors is .20% whereas in Group A it is .65% although the rank order in Group B has gone up to 22 as compared to 27 in Group A.

Three other types of errors have decreased both in number as well as RO although slightly in this aspect. The first is the omission of the s-morpheme of the plural which has decreased from 1.1% errors in Group A to .5% in Group B, while the RO has gone from 19 in Group B to 14 in Group A; the second error is the noun preceding the adjective which has been reduced from .95% in Group A to .2% in Group B and the RO from 20 to 22; the third is the omission of the modal auxiliary *do, does, did*, fallen from 1.07% in Group A to .7% in Group B while the RO decreased by two also, from 15 to 17.

Two other errors have virtually disappeared from the RO list of errors in Group B. These are the present used instead of the future; .9% and RO 19 in Group A and the feminine or masculine gender given to a thing, equally .9% and of RO 19.

It is undeniable that some errors have disappeared and others decreased in the Group B, yet what is particularly striking on first comparing the two lists is that the important errors of RO 1 to 10 are much the same and almost in the same order for both groups. It is a further proof of the difficulty of these items, but could also reveal the inefficiency of the teaching. How is it that after nine years of English in their whole school careers, these students have not yet mastered these elementary structures? What have they been learning all this time? It was stated that such high-ranking errors as the omission of the article, the errors with such prepositions as *at, in, to* were important because of the frequency of these words, yet would there exist other criteria of more crucial importance than frequency? We would suggest three: that of improvement in sub-standard or developmental errors, that of greater fluency and finally that of intelligibility. These criteria will now be discussed.

Improvement in Sub-Standard or Developmental Errors

It is always a shocking surprise to hear a highly cultured adult using sub-standard or developmental language - that is the immature language of a child learning his mother tongue - when speaking a second or a foreign language. The environment and the circumstances in which certain educated persons learned the second language can account for this state of affairs. It is, however all college teachers' ambition to have their students speak an English that will be an asset to them rather than a drawback that will raise cultured eyebrows. Have we any indication on examining our Group B list that these elementary errors have been corrected or at least decreased? Some of the sub-standard errors are the use of the past participle alone instead of the past, the double negative, *don't* instead of doesn't, and finally *ain't*. The use of the past participle used alone has increased in Group B to .7% from .20% in Group A, and from RO 43 to 17; the double negative decreased from .2% in Group A to none in Group B. As for the offensive *ain't* it is altogether non-existent in their language. One of the stories the students had to read contained some *aint's* which mystified them - they had never heard or read it and had no inkling as to its meaning.

These errors of sub-standard English are surprisingly small compared to other errors, but the errors of *don't's* used instead of doesn't, numerous. On examining the errors of our corpus we noted that they had increased slightly from .6% in Group A to .82% in Group B for reasons we shall expose later.

Don't used instead of *doesn't* was considered sub-standard but it is also present among McNeil's (1970:94) enumerations of developmental errors we shall now consider. The first of these, the omission of the s-morpheme on the plural of nouns has been cut down from 1.1% to .5% and the opposite error that of the addition of an s-morpheme to a singular, from .7% to 0, in both cases a reduction of more than half. As for the omission of the modal auxiliary, *do, does, did*, it has dropped from 1.07% to .7% and the omission of the *'s* to indicate possession has dwindled from .65% to .2%. Equally on the decline are the mixing of tenses in the same or neighbouring sentences: from .7% to .5%, and the omission of the verb *be*: from 1.15 to .6%. Two items out of this list have increased - that of wrong order in questions, from 1% to 2.6% and that of the wrong structure used after verbs of volition: from 2.0% to 2.2%

If we sum up the results of this detailed analysis of the progress or decline of the students of Group B level with regards to non-standard and developmental English, we may see that out of 11 items, they have shown from slight to marked improvement in 7 items and regression in 4. Two of the 4 increases may be accounted for: one for the greater number of errors in wrong order for questions because of the considerable amount of questions they were given as assignments without sufficient explanation and drilling as already mentioned; the other, because of the more advanced students' exposure to sub-standard English at summer camps or on vacation in the U.S. or English-speaking Canada. At the lower level, however, the English they have heard is for the most part only what they learned in class; they could not, generally have been influenced by the use of the past participle used alone, for example, as could have been the more advanced level. Improvement in 7 items out of 11, and the errors of 2 others that can be accounted for is a rather gratifying result, and proof it seems, that part of the teaching at least, has been efficient.

Fluency

The second criterion we mentioned was fluency. We may speak of fluent style, but with regards to a second or foreign language, fluency is generally considered as a characteristic of oral language. By this fluency is meant the ability to express one's ideas with a certain ease and without too much hesitation. Would the students of the Group B be considered more fluent than those of the Group A?

We can only answer by leaving the RO lists aside and comparing the two groups on a basis of experience. The author has made a great number of interviews for placement purposes and also for conversation examinations each semester. In these interviews she noted marked progress in fluency in the Group B although the same errors always slip back - those that occupy a high RO.

Now the question is whether it is preferable to have hesitant utterance with correct English or more rapid utterance with mistakes. The choice might be a matter of personal taste. The problem is, however, that if the teacher insists too much on grammatical accuracy, the students become inhibited and lose their train of thought. If we listen to our Québec MNA's we are astonished by the fluency of their English, yet they let some of our high RO errors crop up. Were they too engrossed by grammatical accuracy, their inspiration and their eloquence would suffer and the people also who listen to them. On the other hand, if the students are allowed not to heed the correction of their utterances, they will soon fail into some kind of pidgin English altogether unacceptable for educated people.

Intelligibility

The last and perhaps the most essential criterion that should help teachers assess the importance of errors is intelligibility. Do certain mistakes hinder communication or mislead the interlocutor or reader? According to Margareta Olsson in the GUME project: Intelligibility: A Study of Errors and Their Importance (1972:1-18), these are the ones that should be corrected. Oral and written tests in English were given to Swedish students; Englishmen rated the errors made. The evaluators agreed that these errors were unacceptable, but they understood 70% of what the Swedish pupils said or wrote.

Olsson concludes that a change of attitude from stressing correctness to considering communication in speech and in writing would not be amiss.

If this is so, we would suggest the following items that would have greater importance because of their impact on communication than some of the high ranking errors we deplore. These are: agreement in all its aspects - agreement of the possessive adjective, of the pronoun with its antecedent - tense and aspect, the active voice instead of the passive, incorrect mood and modals, word order and finally choice of words and lexis. If these errors are less frequent in the Group B than in the Group A it would seem that progress in intelligibility has been made. We shall analyze each one of these items to consider how they could mislead the interlocutors or readers and we shall compute the number of errors for Group A and Group B to see if there is reduction of these errors in the latter group.

No lengthy consideration is required to prove that wrong agreement with the possessive adjective may be misleading. If, for example, a Francophone writes or says: "She went into *his* apartment" (son appartement) or: "He went into *her* room (sa chambre), damaging suspicions may be aroused. Other serious insinuations may result from the use of the masculine or feminine gender when speaking of a thing: *She or he* is here in the cellar, when speaking of a carpet or a trunk. Of less consequence but still a source of confusion are the following faulty agreements: the pronoun not agreeing with its antecedent - "Where did you put the skis?" *I put *it* in the attic." - What is this *it*? Is he alluding to something else than skis? Did he understand what I said? *Who* used as a relative pronoun with a thing as antecedent or *which* used instead of *who*: The door *who* is open. Could she have meant, *Who opened the door?*; again the expletive *there is* translated by *he has* from the French *il y a*. *He *has* a mouse, could lead to a panicky avoidence of a masculine member of a reunion. An error with the reflexive, such as: *He is proud of *him* (himself, from: *de lui* in French), or *She loves *her* (herself) too much, could provoke sanguine interpretations. Finally, the inversion of the noun and the adjective could result in such concoctions as *paper toilet* instead of *toilet paper*, actually heard in New-Brunswick.

All the errors of this type added together give as totals: 4.04% in Group A and 1.4% in Group B, a substantial decrease. (See pp.   for these results).

Although less misleading than agreement errors, errors of the second type - tense and aspect - can be confusing. If a person answers: *I *go* with you instead of *I'll go* with you, one may well wonder if he/she is going with you *now* and refuses to go later at the required time. Again, if a teacher speaking of a pupil to a parent visiting her class, says: *He *listens well*, instead of *he is listening well*, the parent could construe this to mean that the pupil always listens well whereas his listening at that moment is a fleeting accident. If a manager speaking of one of the employees says, **He's working well*, the president could conclude that he perhaps does not always work well. The present perfect used instead of the simple past could also mislead English ears. Thus if a singer's business manager proclaims that the _prima donna toured_ Europe six times, it could mean for the listeners that her star is waning and that she will not be invited again to tour Europe - . Finally, the present used instead of the past could cause still more serious misunderstanding. If speaking of young delinquents, a social worker tells the probation officer that the youngsters _steal_ instead of _stole_, the former could imagine that these were cases of hardened delinquents who continue their robberies in spite of admonitions. Other examples could be given to illustrate the serious consequences that could be provoked by this confusion of tenses. The total of these errors of tense and aspect amount to 1.26% in Group A and 2.3% in Group B.

A third type, the active voice used instead of the passive voice is more serious according to Olsson (1972:28) than the opposite: The man _was meet_ by his sweetheart indicates that the student knows more about the formation of the passive than: The man _was meeting his sweetheart_. Of this type of error, there are 1.12% in Group A and .3% in Group B.

The perennial stumbling block of Francophones, mood and the modals, may also be a source of confusion and misunderstanding. Chief of these errors are those of the formation of the conditional. If the student writes *_Peter liked to see_ or worse still: *_What was Peter liked to see?_ there is no element of doubt or choice - it is simply a fact. Although the modals contain many morphological errors - *_I must delivered, he must takes, he can predicts, you can bringing_, yet these errors do not hinder comprehension. Some errors with _can_ would however. These are _to_ used after _can_ - _I can to stay_, for example, which in oral English could be understood as _can't_. _Will can_ and _did can_ could also be puzzling to English ears unexperienced with second language speaking. *_You will can, He'll never can, She thinks she'll can._ "What is all this canning business out of season?" they may ask. Other errors with _can_ that are decidedly misleading are the _can't's_ used for _can's_, or the opposite. The errors with moods and modals add up to a total of .85% in Group A and .4% in Group B.

The last - choice of words and lexis - is perhaps the most important, as the wrong choice of words seems to block communication more than grammatical errors. (Olsson 1972:57) Indeed: *_There are three pieces_. (from the French pièce: room) in the house, is more incomprehensible than *There is three rooms in the house (there are), or even: *He has three rooms in the house (there are). We shall not enumerate all these lexical errors and choice of words as the list would be too long, but we shall give a few as examples among which we shall include the verb be used instead of have, as we are considering the semantic aspect. These examples are: Fell instead of feel, let instead of leave, loose instead of lose, rest instead of stay, thing instead of think, live instead of leave, and finally they very misleading become instead of come back. The total of these errors in Group A is 4.1% and in Group B, 2.4%.

To sum up the results of this last criterion of intelligibility, it may be noted that out of the 16 types listed on previously. Group B has made marked progress - and by "marked progress" we mean only half and fewer than half of the errors made by the Group A - in 10 types, it has maintained about the same number of errors in 2 items and has regressed in 4. Considering these figures and considering also that the frequency of certain errors - for tense and aspect, for example - has been increased because of the kind of assignments given, we may perhaps conclude that the students of this advanced level have improved with respect to intelligibility.

If after gauging these results against the criteria for the evaluation of achievement in English - improvement in sub-standard or developmental English, fluency and intelligibility - we find marked progress in the Group B, some may submit this as a proof that the students have learned some English during their two years of college in spite of persistent errors.

Yet, the fact remains that we are against a linguistic dilemma: if we stress fluency and intelligibility at the expense of correction, sloppy habits that may well become fossilized will result; if we stress correction too much, the students will become inhibited and will remain silent. (Olsson 1972:92). What to do? Holley and King (1971:494-498) take a middle stand in *Initiation and Correction in Second Language Learning* and maintain that stringent demands for grammatical accuracy are not only unrealistic, but possibly harmful in second language learning. Teachers should commend factual accuracy in students. The authors add that corrective procedures should be resorted to when a group of students make some errors at a stage where they can profit by explanations. It seems that if factual accuracy is embedded in faulty English much of the impact of what is advanced is lost. Moreover, if we wait until the group makes the same mistakes, we may delay for a long time, as each student generally has his idiosyncratic errors. We agree that the students must have a certain degree of linguistic maturity and experience before profiting by explanation of certain difficult structures, but the easiest ones could and should be explained quite soon.

One solution might still be for teachers to plod painstakingly along trying to correct most errors, encouraged by the fact that - according to this research at least some of the important errors are corrected in the course of years of teaching. They may also count on future research to find means of correcting the ones that resist tenaciously. Olsson (1972:93) concludes her study on errors and their importance by maintaining that future research will deal with the effect that different teaching strategies have in the treatment of errors. Frequent errors will be singled out and exposed to different treatments which could entail emphatic correction of sentences with or without making the students repeat the corrected sentence, a concentration on the content of the response while replacing in passing incorrect grammatical elements by correct ones and finally the modelling of new structures as a follow up of the students' response. As far as the author is concerned she is under the impression that these means have already been exploited by most teachers, yet further and different research may count among its major breakthroughs the means of correcting resistant errors.

From the study of these RO lists three salient points may be retained. The first and most striking is the persistence of certain errors even after two years of training. They are the same errors and occupy roughly the same high ranks. Their tenaciousness could be imputable to negative transfer from French, to strong tendency of young adults to overgeneralize, to transfer of training and at times to strategy of communication. Even if these errors could be ascribable to inefficiency in teaching, yet other criteria than the correction of these high ranking errors could indicate improvement in learning English as a second language. These are correction of sub-standard and developmental English, greater fluency and intelligibility. According to the results of this research some progress along these criteria has been achieved.

DETAILED LIST OF % OF ERRORS MOST CONDUCIVE TO LACK OF INTELLIGIBILITY:

	Group A % of Errors	Group B % of Errors
Antecedents		
Who used instead of *which*	.42	.4
Reflexives	.35	.4
The possessive adjective agreeing with the thing possessed as in French	.65	.2
The possessive adjective agreeing neither with the possessor nor the thing possessed as in French	.62	0
The noun placed before an adjective	.95	0
The pronoun agreeing with the wrong antecedent	1.05	.4
TOTAL:	4.04%	1.4%

	Group A % of Errors	Group B % of Errors
Tense and Aspect		
The present used instead of the present continuous	.7	.3
The present continuous used instead of the simple present	.85	.9
The present perfect used instead of the simple past	.95	1.0
SUB-TOTAL	1.87%	2.2%

	Group A % of Errors	Group B % of Errors
Tense and Aspect (cont'd)		
The present and past used instead of the present perfect	.10	.9
The present used instead of the past	.95	1.4
The past used instead of the present	.12	0
The present used instead of the future	. 9	0
	1.26%	2.3%
The active voice used instead of the passive	1.12	.3
Mood and Modals	.85	.4
Choice of words and lexis	4.1	2.4
GRAND TOTAL:	13.24%	9. %

The conclusion to be drawn from these findings is that errors - both interlingual and intralingual - rank equally high in the low and advanced level students and that these errors still exist almost in the same high-ranking order after two years of insistence on their correction.

Reasons for their persistence have been suggested which should console the harassed teacher along with the additional consideration that the important aspect of language learning is communication, not impeccable speech. Yet, the fact remains that if an ideal method could be found for language teaching with means of correcting the high-risk areas studied in the rank-ordered lists, correct utterances, fluency and communication could travel hand in hand on the way to language acquisition. It is to be hoped that this study will have contributed in a small way to the advancement of future research along these lines.

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